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ГОВОРИМ О ВЕЛИКОБРИТАНИИ

Практикум

МИНИСТЕРСТВО НАУКИ И ВЫСШЕГО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ
РОССИЙСКОЙ ФЕДЕРАЦИИ

УРАЛЬСКИЙ ФЕДЕРАЛЬНЫЙ УНИВЕРСИТЕТ
ИМЕНИ ПЕРВОГО ПРЕЗИДЕНТА РОССИИ Б. Н. ЕЛЬЦИНА

Т. Н. Зубакина

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Данный практикум способствует развитию у студентов-бакалавров уровня Intermediate / высокий Pre-Intermediate навыков построения монологического высказывания на основе аналитического чтения текстов о Великобритании. Практикум может быть использован как самостоятельное пособие, так и в качестве дополнения к любому учебнику английского языка.

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ОГЛАВЛЕНИЕ

ПРЕДИСЛОВИЕ

Практикум создан в соответствии с требованиями университетских рабочих программ дисциплины «*Иностранный язык*», разработанных на кафедре лингвистики и профессиональной коммуникации на иностранных языках, предназначен для студентов-бакалавров уровня B1 по Европейской классификации владения иностранным языком (Common European Framework of Reference — CEFR).

Основной целью настоящего практикума является овладение студентами достаточного уровня коммуникативной компетенцией как совокупностью речевых умений и навыков: чтения, говорения и письменной речи. Умение общаться на иностранном языке предполагает навык построения грамотного монологического высказывания как важной составляющей полноценной коммуникации. Названная цель определяет структуру практикума.

Практикум состоит из 5 разделов, посвященных географии, экономике, политическому устройству, системе образования и литературе Великобритании. Каждый раздел содержит оригинальные тексты, предназначенные для аналитического чтения. Система заданий, сопровождающих эти тексты, обеспечивает развитие навыка грамотного построения высказывания как в устной, так и в письменной форме. С учетом современной теории преподавания иностранных языков тексты сопровождаются лексическим комментарием, поскольку одной из составляющих совершенствования навыков говорения является работа с лексикой, а именно: анализ использования лексической единицы в тексте, вдумчивое прочтение словарной статьи, попытка создать общее представление о смысле слова и сопоставление этого представления с конкретным его использованием в тексте.

Все задания выполняются с опорой на текстовый материал, носят, в основном, творческий характер и построены таким образом, что максимально стимулируют навыки говорения, умение сворачивать, интерпретировать и резюмировать полученную информацию.

Каждый раздел содержит корпус аутентичных текстов для дополнительного чтения, который обеспечивает полноценность и гибкость работы преподавателя, дополняя каждый тематический раздел современными на момент издания практикума данными. Чтение и анализ текста может проводиться как в аудитории, так и самостоятельно в режиме групповой или индивидуальной работы обучаемых.

Аналитическое чтение текстов о стране изучаемого языка развивает эрудицию студента-бакалавра и направлено на развитие коммуникативных навыков как в подготовленной, так и в неподготовленной речи обучаемых. Облегчают построение монологических высказываний включенные в практикум различные таблицы, схемы и диаграммы.

В работе над вторым изданием практикума автор обращался к источникам, имеющим цель сформировать у обучаемых навык построения грамотного иноязычного высказывания. Данное издание практикума дополнено корпусом аутентичных текстов.

Unit 1
THE GEOGRAPHY OF GREAT BRITAIN

The following text will introduce you to the topic "The Geography of Great Britain" (see Image 1). Pay attention to the English-English comment.

TEXT

Britain forms the greater part of the British Isles, which *lie off* the north-west coast of mainland Europe. The full name is the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. Great Britain *comprises* England, Wales and Scotland.

The area *totals* some 244,500 sq. km. Britain is just under 1,000 km long from the south coast of England to the extreme north of Scotland, and just under 500 km across in the widest part.

The climate is generally *mild* and *temperate*. Temperatures *rarely exceed* 32°C or fall below — 10°C. Rainfall is *fairly* well *distributed* throughout the year.

Britain is a relatively densely populated country. Population distribution in the UK is also *uneven*. Some parts of the UK are very crowded. The south east, which includes the city of London, has a much greater population than the highlands of Scotland. The popu-

lie off /laɪ ɒf/ *v* — (of a ship) stand some distance from shore or from another ship
comprise /kəmˈprʌɪz/ *v* — consist of; be made up of; make up or constitute (a whole)
total /ˈtəʊt(ə)l/ *v* — reach a particular total; add up the numbers of something or someone and get a total
mild /maɪld/ *adj* — (of weather) moderately warm, especially less cold than expected
temperate /ˈtɛmp(ə)rət/ *adj* — relating to or denoting a region or climate characterized by mild temperatures
rarely /ˈrɛːli / *adv* — not often; seldom
exceed /ɛkˈsiːd/, /ɪkˈsiːd/ *v* — be greater in number or size than…

lation is very unequally distributed over the four parts of the UK: England makes up about 84 per cent of the total population, Wales around 5 per cent, Scotland roughly 8.5 per cent, and Northern Ireland less than 3 per cent.

fairly /ˈfɛːli/ *adv* — with justice
distribute /dɪˈstrɪbjuːt/ *v* — spread (a load) over an area
uneven /ʌnˈiːv(ə)n/ — not regular, consistent, or equal

1. What words have the same meaning as:

lie, comprise, total, mild, temperate, rarely, exceed, fairly, distribute, uneven.

2. Paraphrase some sentences summarize the material in your own words (you may use English-English comment).

E.g. Britain forms the greater part of the British Isles which lie off the north-west coast of mainland Europe.

You may say or you may conclude	that	1. Britain is the greater part of the British Isles. 2. Britain is an island country. 3. It is situated to the north-west of the mainland Europe.

3. Discuss some geographical facts about the British Isles, using the following conversational phrases and a map of the UK (Image 1) from *Yandex*.

As far as I know… — Насколько мне известно…
In addition to that… — Вдобавок к этому…
As far as I can remember… — Насколько я помню…
As to…; as for… — Что касается…
What's more… — Более того…
I wouldn't say… — Я бы не сказал…
In other words… — Другими словами…
The way I see it… — На мой взгляд…
The point is… — Дело в том…
To begin with… — Прежде всего…
To come back to… — Возвращаясь к…
To other words… — Другими словами…
To tell the truth… — По правде говоря…
I suppose that… — Я полагаю, что…
If I am not mistaken… — Если я не ошибаюсь…
They say… — Говорят…

Image 1. A Map of the United Kingdom

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

Scotland

Where is Scotland?

Scotland is a part of the United Kingdom (UK) and occupies the northern third of Great Britain. Scotland's mainland shares a border with England to the south. It is home to almost 800 small islands, including the northern isles of Shetland and Orkney, the Hebrides, Arran and Skye.

Scotland on the map

Located in the mid-west of Europe, Scotland may be small but we're punching well above our weight! Occupying the northern third of Great Britain we share a border with England in the south and pack some of the most stunning scenery in all of the UK into our borders. From wild coastlines and pristine beaches to rolling valleys and towering mountains, Scotland's geography is a huge part of its appeal. If that's not enough, we are strategically placed near the best of Europe and beyond, making us the perfect destination for work and play.

As well as a mainland jam-packed with things to see and do, Scotland is also home to almost 800 small islands. In the north of the country you'll find the majestic Shetland Isles and Orkney Isles, both steeped in a magical mix of Scottish, Celtic and Norse history and culture.

In the west you'll find incredible archipelagos such as the Outer Hebrides, home to incredible pristine beaches that are regularly mistaken for Caribbean islands in photographs, and the Inner Hebrides, site of one of the jewels in the crown of Scottish scenery, the Isle of Skye.

Scotland is surrounded by different bodies of water depending on the coast, with the North Sea in the east separating us from most of the rest of Europe, and the Atlantic Ocean in the north and west separating us from Iceland, the USA and Canada. To the south-west you will find the Irish Sea, which separates us from our Irish neighbours.

Regions of Scotland

When you look at a map of Scotland, you may think we're small, but we pack an amazing variety of things into our borders. From our vibrant,

bustling cities to the rolling hills and sparkling lochs of our jaw-dropping scenic landscapes, there's plenty treasures to discover. Each region also has its own unique and distinct character — ensuring you're given a different experience in each and every place.

From pristine beaches to crumbling castles, exciting cultural attractions to ancient maritime heritage, Aberdeen & Aberdeenshire is one of the most vibrant regions in Scotland. At its heart, the city of Aberdeen is a cosmopolitan hub and bustling commercial centre. Discover the rich coastal landscapes and Highland scenery in Argyll & The Isles. This dynamic region on Scotland's west coast is home to charming seaside villages and towns, incredible seafood, world-renowned whisky distilleries and rugged landscapes.

Situated on Scotland's west coast, *Ayrshire and Arran* is a region characterised by its varied coastlines, picturesque islands and unspoilt beaches. Nature is just the beginning of Ayrshire and Arran's charms; magnificent castles, historic buildings, cultural attractions and a close proximity to Glasgow all make this beguiling region one worth exploring.

From babbling brooks to dense forests and wild coastal stretches, *Dumfries & Galloway* is the perfect backdrop for adventure. The stunning natural scenery has inspired poets, artists and writers for centuries.

Uncover some of Scotland's most precious gems in *Dundee & Angus*. The stunning region is home to pristine beaches, ancient forests, world class golf courses and miles of rugged hills. Guarding the banks of the River Tay is Dundee, the fourth largest city in Scotland and home to an array of unique heritage and urban charms.

World Heritage sites to award-winning restaurants and standout shopping, Edinburgh offers excitement and adventure at every turn.

Home to Scotland's historic capital city, Edinburgh & The Lothians is one of the most exciting regions in the country. From world-class cultural institutions and UNESCO World Heritage sites to award-winning restaurants and standout shopping, Edinburgh offers excitement and adventure at every turn. Stunning landscapes, charming towns and the majestic peaks of the Pentland Hills in the surrounding Lothians make it the perfect destination for exploring. For a compact region, the Kingdom of Fife is incredibly diverse; here are historic universi-

ties, world-renowned links golf courses, sweeping coastlines and miles of lush, green landscapes.

Bursting with history, culture, art, shopping and entertainment, Greater Glasgow & the Clyde Valley is home to Scotland's largest and most dynamic city. Visitors can seek pleasure in its many shops and restaurants, pursue culture in the world-class museums and galleries or experience Glasgow's famous hospitality first hand at one of the many sporting and entertainment venues in the city.

From *Scotland is Now.* URL: https://www.scotland.org/about-scotland/where-is-scotland (date of access: 09.07.2019)

Wales

Wales is a distinctive part of the UK. With its own character, culture and way of life.

Population: 3.1 million people. 4.8% of the UK population.

Location: Wales is on the island of Great Britain, to the west of England.

Size: Wales is roughly 20,800 square km in area.

Currency: Pound Sterling

National Day: St David's Day, 1 March

National symbols: The dragon, daffodil and leek are three of a number of national symbols.

National Anthem: Hen Wlad fy Nhadau (Land of my Fathers)

Government: Devolved Government with a First Minister, Cabinet and elected Assembly who meet in the Senedd building in Cardiff Bay.

Language: Welsh and English — Wales is a bilingual country.

Cities: There are currently six cities in Wales. Cardiff (Caerdydd in Welsh) the capital city of Wales has a population of around 363,000 and is located on the South East coast. To the east lies Newport (Casnewydd) and to the west is Swansea (Abertawe). Bangor — on the Menai Strait — overlooks the island of Anglesey, in North West Wales. St Davids in Pembrokeshire has a population of under 2000 and is the smallest city in the UK and on 14 March 2012, St Asaph, in north east Wales was awarded city status as part of the Queen's Diamond Jubilee celebrations.

Highest mountain: Snowdon (Yr Wyddfa), Snowdonia National Park, at 1,085 m

Biggest natural lake: Llyn Tegid, 6 km in length.

National Parks: Wales has three National Parks which cover 20% of the country's land mass and five Areas of Outstanding Natural Beauty:

- Pembrokeshire Coast National Park;
- Snowdonia National Park;
- Brecon Beacons National Park.

Climate: Wales's weather is mild and variable — with average temperatures of around 20°C (68°F) in summer, and 6°C (43°F) at low altitude in the winter months.

From *Facts About Wales.* URL: https://wales.com/about/facts-about-wales (date of access: 09.07.2019)

Unit 2
BRITISH INDUSTRY

The following text will introduce you to the topic "British Industry". Pay attention to the English-English comment in the margins.

TEXT

The UK is the fifth largest economy in the world. Its gross domestic product (GDP) in 2018 was $2,822,817 million, leaving United Kingdom placed 5th in the ranking of GDP. It has the second largest economy in Europe (after Germany); inflation, interest rates, and unemployment remain low. If we order the countries according to their GDP per capita, the United Kingdom is well positioned in terms of the standard of living of its population, coming 24th out of the 196 countries. Britain is an industrial country. It is rich in coal. Thousands of men in the towns and villages in South Wales, the North of England and in Scotland are miners, but *owing* to the *increasing* use of atomic energy, of natural gas and of oil for heating, more and more mines are closing and the miners are losing their jobs.

owing /ˈəʊɪŋ/ *prep.* — because of or on account of
increase /ɪnˈkriːs/ *v* — becoming greater, more common, or more frequent

The North is heavily industrialized. Manchester and Liverpool are the Northwest's largest cities and both are important ports. Liverpool is Britain's second largest port

after London and is in the area known as Merseyside because it stands on the river Mersey. The port of Manchester lies 58 kilometres inland but is connected to the sea by the Manchester Ship Canal. Sheffild (Yorkshire) is the centre of the steel industry. There are cotton *mills* and textile factories in Manchester. Liverpool is an important port. Clydeside near Glasgow and Belfast in Northern Ireland are big ship-building centres.

mill /mɪl/ *n* — a factory fitted with machinery for a particular manufacturing process; a building equipped with machinery for grinding grain into flour

The Midlands, too, in the heart of England, are an important centre of industry (iron, steel and pottery). However, they are an area of great contrasts. Birmingham is home to so many different industries that it was nicknamed the "city of 1001 trades". There is the Black Country round Birmingham, while not far away is the lovely plain around the historic town of Stratford-on-Avon — Shakespeare's birthplace — with its fields and *hedges* and beautiful gardens. Farming and fruit-growing are the main *occupations* there. East Anglia is another agricultural district, and Kent, in the South-East, is well known for fruit-growing. Two famous towns here are the Channel Port of Dover and Canterbury with its fine cathedral. Cornwall in the South-West is famous for its *kaolin* (China clay).

hedge /hɛdʒ/ *n* — a fence or boundary formed by closely growing bushes or shrubs

occupation /ɒkjʊˈpeɪʃ(ə)n/ *n* — a job or profession

kaolin /ˈkeɪəlɪn/ *n* — a fine soft white clay, resulting from the natural decomposition of other clays or feldspar

The Irish Republic is an agricultural country famous for its *dairy* and meat *products*. Scotland, Wales and Ireland give unforgettable holidays to the thousands of tourists who come to see their mountains and lakes, their rivers and their wonderful sea coasts every year.

dairy product /ˈdɛːri ˈprɒdʌkt/ — a product containing or made from milk

1. Read the words aloud.

Belfast /ˈbɛlfɑːst/
Birmingham /ˈbɜːmɪŋəm/
Britain /ˈbrɪt(ə)n/
Cambridge /ˈkeɪmbrɪdʒ/
Canterbury /ˈkantəb(ə)ri/
Cardiff /ˈkɑːdɪf/
Cornwall /ˈkɔːnwəl/
East Anglia /ˌiːst ˈaŋglɪə/
Edinbourgh /ˈɛdɪnbərə/
Glasgow /ˈglɑːzgəʊ/, /ˈglazgəʊ/
Liverpool /ˈlɪvəpuːl/
Manchester /ˈmantʃɪstə/
Merseyside /ˈməːzɪˌsʌɪd/
Midlands /ˈmɪdləndz/
Northern Ireland /ˌnɔːðən ˈʌɪələnd/
Northwest /nɔːθˈwɛst/
Oxford /ˈɒksfəd/
Scotland /ˈskɒtlənd/
Sheffield (Yorkshire) /ˈʃɛfiːld/ ˈjɔːkʃ(ɪ)ə/
South Wales /saʊθ ˈweɪlz/
Stratford-on-Avon /ˌstratfədɒnˈeɪv(ə)n/
the Channel Port of Dover /ˈtʃan(ə)l pɔːt əv ˈdəʊvə/
The Irish Republic /’aɪrɪʃ rɪˈpʌblɪk/
the North of England /ˌnɔːθ əv ˈɪŋglənd/
the South-East /saʊθˈiːst/
Ulster /ˈʌlstə/

2. Show on the map below (Image 2) *the major regions and cities discussed in the text.*

From *Worldatlas*. URL:_https://www.worldatlas.com/webimage/countrys/europe/lgcolor/ukbcolor.htm (date of access: 09.07.2019)

3. Show on the map (Image 2) *where you might find agriculture, shipbuilding, oil production, natural gas production, chemical industry, wool textile industry.*

4. Create as many sentences as you can related to these industries: agriculture; textile industry; tourism; computer industry; financed services.

5. Imagine yourself a head of a travel agency featuring tours of Great Britain. Create some advertisements for areas which you feel would attract tourists (businessmen).

Image 2. A Map of Great Britain

6. You are a British businessman, desiring to export products to Russia. Create some television advertisements presenting one of the products discussed in the text.

7. Suppose you work in each of the following cities or regions of Great Britain. What sorts of occupations would be common in each (refer to the text). Explain your variants.

Northern Ireland	Stratford-on-Avon	Liverpool
Birmingham	London	Oxford
Manchester	Belfast	North Sea Coast

8. Decide which place you would prefer to live in.

9. Discuss your choice with any other students, who have chosen the same place and make a list of all your reasons for living there.

The following text will introduce you to the topic "British Industrial Development". Make a headline to each paragraph. Outline the most important points in the text. Pay attention to the English-English comments.

TEXT

(1) Britain became the world's first industrialised country in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries. *Wealth* was based on *manufacturing* iron and steel, heavy machinery and cotton textiles, and on coal mining, shipbuilding and trade. Manufacturing still plays an important role and Britain *excels* in high-technology industries like chemicals, electronics, aerospace and offshore equipment, where British companies are among the world's largest and most successful. The British construction industry has made

wealth /wɛlθ/ *n* — an abundance of valuable possessions or money; the state of being rich; material prosperity
manufacturing /manjuːˈfaktʃərɪŋ/ *n* — the making of articles on a large scale using machinery; industrial production
excel /ɛkˈsɛl/, /ɪkˈsɛl/ *v* — be exceptionally good at or proficient in an activity or subject

its mark around the world and continues to be involved in prestigious building projects.

(2) The most important industrial developments in the past 20 years or so in Britain have been the exploitation of North Sea oil and gas, and the rapid development of microelectronics technologies and their widespread *application* in industry and commerce. At the same time service industries have been *assuming* ever-increasing *importance* and now account for around two-thirds of output and employment. Financial and other business services have grown in significance.

(3) Britain's economy is based primarily on private enterprise, which accounts for 75 per cent of output and nearly 70 per cent of employment.

(4) Just over 2 per cent of the British *workforce* is *engaged* in agriculture, a lower proportion than in any other leading industrialised country. Services *contribute* a growing proportion of production, 65 per cent, while manufacturing accounts for 21 per cent.

(5) By successfully exploiting oil and natural gas from the North Sea, Britain has become *self-sufficient* in energy and expects to remain so for some years. Exports, mainly to other EC countries, are equivalent to over half of domestic oil production.

International trade plays a vital role in Britain's economy.

application /aplɪˈkeɪʃ(ə)n/ *n* — the action of putting something into operation; practical use or relevance
assume /əˈsjuːm/ *n* — suppose to be the case, without proof to take, to appropriate; take or begin to have (power or responsibility)
to assume importance /əˈsjuːm imˈpɔːtns/ — take on or adopt (a manner or identity e. g. importance), sometimes falsely
workforce /ˈwəːkfɔːs/ *n* — the people engaged in or available for work, either in a country or area or in a particular firm or industry
engage /ɛnˈgeɪdʒ/, /ɪnˈgeɪdʒ/ *v* — to occupy or attract (someone's interest or attention); involve someone in (a conversation or discussion)
contribute /kənˈtrɪbjuːt/, /ˈkɒntrɪbjuːt/ *v* — give (something, especially money) in order to help achieve or provide something to give a part, to have a share in any act of effect
self-sufficient /ˌsɛlfsəˈfɪʃ(ə)nt/ *adj* — needing no outside help in satisfying one's basic needs
expect /ɛkˈspɛkt/, /ɪkˈspɛkt/ *v* — regard (something) as likely to happen to suppose, to consider provable

domestic /dəˈmɛstɪk/ *adj* — existing or occurring inside a particular country; not foreign or international not foreign; native

vital /ˈvʌɪt(ə)l/ *adj* — absolutely necessary; essential necessary for living; indispensable to the continuance of life

Additional Text 1

Britain's chemical industry is the third largest in Europe. The most rapid growth in recent years has been in speciality chemicals, particularly pharmaceuticals and cosmetics. *Pharmaceutical* companies are mainly based in London and south-east England, where more than 40 per cent of production takes place. Dynamic and diverse, the UK is one of the top chemical-producing nations. The industry is founded on abundant resources, supported by world-class scientists and manufacturers, and offers investors well-established facilities and skills.

pharmaceutical /ˌfɑːməˈs(j)uːtɪk(ə)l/ *adj* — relating to medicinal drugs, or their preparation, use, or sale

The UK supplies the world with 95,000 different chemicals and chemical products, many of which can't be found in other countries. We have key capabilities in petrochemicals, basic chemicals and polymers, agrochemicals in fertilisers, pharmaceuticals, consumer chemicals like perfumes, and speciality chemicals.

Additional Text 2

Britain has the fourth largest electronics industry in the world. The computer sector produces an *extensive* range of systems, central processors and *peripheral* equipment, from large computers for large-scale data-processing and scientific work to *mini* and microcomputers for control and automation system and for home, educational and office use. Armstrad is Britain's best-selling personal computer firm. Several leading overseas manufacturers — such as ICL, IBM, Unisys and Compaq — have manufacturing plants in Britain. The electronics sector is worth £16 billion every year to the UK economy. With about 300,000 people in over 12,000 companies the industry has:

- strong intellectual property rights (IPR) framework and legal system;
- established intellectual property rights development;
- ability to quickly introduce products to the market;
- big software sector;
- research community involving academia, companies, and industry groups.

extensive /ɪkˈstɛnsɪv/, /ɛkˈstɛnsɪv/ *adj* — covering or affecting a large area; large in amount or scale
peripheral /pəˈrɪf(ə)r(ə)l/ *adj* — (of a device) able to be attached to and used with a computer, though not an integral part of it.
mini /ˈmɪni/ *adj* — denoting a miniature version of something

Additional Text 3

The UK has its own oil and gas. Developing North Sea oil and gas has created a huge support industry offering equipment and services to oil and gas companies at home and abroad. The trend in *offshore* oil and gas is towards the exploitation of smaller *reservoirs,* which *advances* in technology are making more economic. The two leading

offshore /ˈɒfʃɔː/, /ɒfˈʃɔː/ *adj* — situated at sea some distance from the shore; relating to the business of extracting oil or gas from the seabed
reservoir /ˈrɛzəvwɑː/ *n* — a supply or source of something

British oil companies are British Petroleum (BP) and Shell.

advance /ədˈvɑːns/ *v* — move forwards in a purposeful way; make or cause to make progress

Additional Text 4

The UK aerospace industry is colossal. In fact, it's the largest in Europe and second only to the USA. Over 70 per cent of production is exported. British *aviation* equipment companies have made significant technological advances. They supply navigation and landing system, engine and flightcontrols, power systems, flight deck control and information systems, including head-up displays, of which GEC Avionics is the world's largest manufacturer. The aerospace industry is a diamond in the crown of the British economy, producing innovative aircraft, new technology and wealth for the country.

aviation /eɪvɪˈeɪʃ(ə)n/ *n* — the flying or operating of aircraft

Additional Text 5

The textile and clothing industry has around 15,000 firms, including two of the world's biggest firms — Coats Hyella and Courtaulds. Britain's wool textile industry is one of the largest in the world and is centred in northern England. The linen industry is based in Northern Ireland. Britain is one of the world's leading producers of *woven* carpets.

woven /ˈwəʊvn/ *adj* — (weave *pp* /wiːv/) — form (fabric or a fabric item) by interlacing long threads passing in one direction with others at a right angle to them; interlace (threads) so as to form fabric

Additional Text 6

Construction output in the UK is more than £110 billion per annum and contributes 7% of GDP. Approximately a quarter of construction output is public sector and three-quarters

is private sector. Construction is a high-cost, high-risk, long-term activity, and so its performance is a good indicator of the heath of the British economy. The most important construction projects in hand or *recently* completed are the Channel Tunnel — the largest civil engineering project ever undertaken in Europe. Both Stansted and Manchester airports have been *substantially* redeveloped.

recently /ˈriːsntli/ *adv* — at a recent time; not long ago
substantially /səbˈstanʃ(ə)li/ *adv* –very much; a lot; mainly; in most details, even if not completely
substantial /səbˈstanʃ(ə)l/ *adj* — large in amount, value or importance

Additional Text 7

Britain is a major financial centre, housing some of the world's leading banking, *insurance*, *securities*, shopping, *commodities*, futures and other financial services and markets. The markets for banking, finance, insurance, business services have grown greatly over the past decade. The heart of the industry is the collection of markets and institutions in and around the "Square Mile in the City of London". London is the leading financial centre in the world, along with New York and Singapore, as well as a leading global city for business, the arts, education and tourism.

insurance /ɪnˈʃʊər(ə)ns/ *n* — an arrangement by which a company or the state undertakes to provide a guarantee of compensation for specified loss, damage, illness, or death in return for payment of a specified premium
security /sɪˈkjɔːrɪti/ *n* — (often securities) a certificate attesting credit, the ownership of stocks or bonds, or the right to ownership connected with tradable derivatives something that provides safety, freedom from danger
commodity /kəˈmɒdɪti/ *n* — a useful or valuable thing

Additional Text 8

The UK is one of the world's largest information communications technology markets. The UK develops software for many applications and international companies provide funding for research and development.

hardware /ˈhɑːdweː/ *n* — the machines, wiring, and other physical components of a computer or other electronic system

The computer services industry is now as large as the *hardware* market and is expanding more rapidly. Important areas for software development are data and word processing, telecommunications, computer-aided design and manufacturing, *defence* and *consumer* electronics. The financial services sector is a major user of computer systems.

(computer) mechanical equipment
defence (US **defense**) /dɪˈfɛns/ *n* — the action of defending from or resisting attack; military measures or resources for protecting a country
consumer /kənˈsjuːmə/ *n* — a person who purchases goods and services for personal use

Additional Text 9

Britain pioneered the development of a professional tourism industry. Britain is one of the world's six leading tourist *destinations* and by the year 2000 tourism is expected to be the biggest industry in the world. Business travel accounts for about a fifth of all overseas tourism revenue. Britain's tourist attractions include theatres, museums, art galleries and historic houses, as well as shopping, sports and business facilities. There were 72.8 million visits overseas by UK residents in 2017, an increase of 3% compared with 2016 and the highest figure recorded. The number of visits has increased each year since 2012. There were 39.2 million visits by overseas residents to the UK in 2017, 4% more than in 2016 and the highest figure recorded. The number of visits has increased each year since 2010.

destination /ˌdɛstɪˈneɪʃ(ə)n/ *n* — the place to which someone or something is going or being sent

Additional Text 10

British agriculture is noted for its *efficiency* and productivity. Britain is self-sufficient in 58% of all types of food and animal feed. About 12 million *hectares* were under *crops*

efficiency /ɪˈfɪʃ(ə)nsi/ *n* — the state or quality of being efficient
hectare (also **ha**) /ˈhɛktɛː/, /ˈhɛktɑː/ *n* — a metric unit

and grass. Britain is a major exporter of agricultural produce, machinery and agro-chemicals. About two-thirds of agricultural land is owner-occupied. Today Britain exports fresh *salmon*, scotch whisky, biscuits, jams and conserves, and beef and lamb *carcasses*. Food from Britain *assists* the British food and drink industry to improve its marketing at home and overseas. Agriculture provides around 60% of Britain's food needs even though it employs just 1.4% of the country's labour force.

of square measure, equal to 100 ares (2.471 acres or 10,000 square metres)
crop /krɒp/ *n* — harvest (plants or their produce) from a particular area
salmon /ˈsamən/ *n* — a large edible fish that is a popular sporting fish, much prized for its pink flesh. Salmon mature in the sea but migrate to freshwater streams to spawn
carcass /ˈkɑːkəs/ *n* — the dead body of an animal; the trunk of an animal such as a cow, sheep, or pig, for cutting up as meat
assist /əˈsɪst/ *v* — help (someone), typically by doing a share of the work

1. Make a report about:

- Britain's offshore industries;
- Service industries;
- Britain's agriculture;
- British construction industries;
- Britain's textiles and clothing;
- Electrical, Electric and Instrumental Engineering;
- Britain's tourism industry;
- Britain's overseas trade;
- Britain's Manufacturing;
- Britain's Aerospace Industry.

2. Ask 5–6 questions, concerning the main ideas of your report.

3. Note down the main points of the reports to which you have listened.

4. Write a summary "Britain's Economy and Industry" based on your notes.

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

Northern Ireland (see Image 3), part of the United Kingdom, lying in the northeastern quadrant of the island of Ireland, on the western continental periphery often characterized as Atlantic Europe. Northern Ireland is sometimes referred to as Ulster, although it includes only six of the nine counties which made up that historic Irish province.

In proximity to Scotland and to sea channels leading to England and Wales, Northern Ireland has long witnessed generations of newcomers and emigrants, including Celts from continental Europe and Vikings, Normans, and Anglo-Saxons. In the 17th century, the period of the so-called Ulster plantation, thousands of Scottish Presbyterians were forcibly resettled and English military garrisons built, arrivals that would institutionalize the ethnic, religious, and political differences that eventually resulted in violent conflict.

Since the 1920s, when Northern Ireland was officially separated from Ireland, it has been tormented by sectarian violence. Notwithstanding the peacemaking efforts that began in earnest in the mid-1990s, Northern Ireland is still best navigated by those who are skilled in the shibboleths and cultural codes that demarcate its peoples, governing which football (soccer) team to cheer for, which whiskey to drink, and which song to sing. Northern Ireland's political fortunes subsequently have changed for the better, and with that change has come a flourishing of the arts, so that increasingly outsiders associate the country not with violent politics but with the poems of Seamus Heaney, the music of Van Morrison, and other contributions to world culture.

The capital is Belfast, a modern city whose historic centre was badly damaged by aerial bombardment during World War II. Once renowned for its shipyards — the Titanic was built there — Belfast has lost much of its industrial base. The city — as with Northern Ireland's other chief cities Londonderry (known locally and historically as Derry) and Armagh — is graced with parks and tidy residential neighbourhoods. More

Image 3. A Map of Northern Ireland
From *Encyclopaedia Britannica.* URL: https://kids.britannica.com/students/assembly/view/126713 (date of access: 09.07.2019)

handsome still is the Northern Irish countryside — green, fertile, and laced with rivers and lakes, all of which have found lyrical expression in the nation's folk and artistic traditions.

From *Encyclopaedia Britannica.* URL: https://www.britannica.com/place/Northern-Ireland (date of access: 09.07.2019)

Unit 3
POLITICAL SYSTEM

The text given below will introduce you to the topic "The Political System of Great Britain". Make a headline to each paragraph. Outline the most important points in the text. Pay attention to the English-English comment in the margins.

TEXT

(1) Britain is a *parliamentary* democracy with a constitutional *monarch* — Queen Elizabeth II — as the head of the state. In law the Queen is the head of the *executive,* an integral part of the *legislature,* head of the *judiciary,* the commander-in-chief of all the armed forces of the Crown and the supreme governor of the established Church of England. As a result of a long process of evolution, during which the monarchy's absolute power has been progressively reduced, the Queen is a constitutional monarch who acts on the *advice* of her ministers. Time has reduced the power of the monarchy, and today it is broadly ceremonial.

parliamentary /ˌpɑːləˈmɛnt(ə)ri/ *adj* — relating to, enacted by, or suitable for a parliament
monarch /ˈmɒnək/ *n* — a sovereign head of state, especially a king, queen, or emperor
executive /ɪgˈzɛkjʊtɪv/ *adj* — the branch of a government responsible for putting decisions or laws into effect
legislature /ˈlɛdʒɪslətʃə/ *n* — the legislative body of a country or state law making body
judiciary /dʒʊˈdɪʃ(ə)ri/ *n* — the judicial authorities of a country; judges collectively
advice /ədˈvʌɪs/ *n* — guidance or recommendations offered with regard to prudent future action

(2) Parliament, the Britain's legislature, *comprises* the House of Commons, The House of Lords and the Queen in her constitutional role. These meet together only on *occasions* of ceremonial significance. Parliament is the highest legislative authority in the United Kingdom.

comprise /kəmˈprʌɪz/ *v* — consist of; be made up of
occasion /əˈkeɪʒ(ə)n/ *n* — reason; cause; a particular event, or the time at which it takes place; a special or noteworthy event, ceremony, or celebration

(3) The Commons has the 650 elected Members of Parliament (MPs), each representing a local constituency. The Lords is made up of 1185 *hereditary* and life *peers* and *peeresses,* and the two archbishops and the 24 most senior *bishops* of the established Church of England. Parliament has the following functions: making laws, controlling finance and examining the work of the government. The centre of parliamentary power is the House of Commons. Limitations on the power of the Lords are based on the principle that the House, as a revising chamber, should complement the Commons and not rival it. Once passed through both Houses, all legislation requires the formal approval of the Monarch, although in practice the Royal Assent has not been refused since 1707. The House of Commons and the House of Lords use similar methods of *scrutiny* of the work of the government, although the procedures vary.

hereditary /hɪˈrɛdɪt(ə)ri/ *adj* — (of a title, office, or right) conferred by or based on inheritance; (of a characteristic or disease) determined by genetic factors and therefore able to be passed on from parents to their offspring or descendants
peer /pɪə/ *n* — a member of the nobility in Britain or Ireland, comprising the ranks of duke, marquess, earl, viscount, and baron
peeress /ˈpɪərəs/ *n* — a woman holding the rank of a peer in her own right; the wife or widow of a peer
bishop /ˈbɪʃəp/ *n* — a senior member of the Christian clergy, usually in charge of a diocese and empowered to confer holy orders
scrutiny /ˈskruːtɪni/ *n* — critical observation or examination

(4) The chief officer of the House of Commons is the Speaker, elected by MPs to preside

over the House. The House of Lords is *presided* over by the Lord Chancellor. The main difference of procedure between the two Houses is that the Chairman in the Lords has no power of order; instead much matters are decided by the general feeling of the House. In the Commons the Speaker has full authority to *enforce* the rules of the House and must guard against the *abuse* of procedure and protect *minority* rights.

preside /prɪˈzʌɪd/ *v* — be in the position of authority in a meeting or other gathering
enforce /ɛnˈfɔːs/, /ɪnˈfɔːs/ *v* — compel observance of or compliance with (a law, rule, or obligation); cause (something) to happen by necessity or force
abuse /əˈbjuːz/ *n* — use (something) to bad effect or for a bad purpose; misuse
minority /mɪˈnɒrɪti/, /mʌɪˈnɒrɪti/ *n* — the smaller number or part, especially a number or part representing less than half of the whole

(5) General election to choose MPs must be held at least every five years. The simple majority system of voting is used. Most candidates in elections and almost all winning candidates belong to one or other of the main political parties. Since the Second World War the great majority of MPs have belonged to either the Conservative or the Labour party. The leader of the party which wins most seats at a general election is invited by the Monarch to form a government. About 100 of its members in the House of Commons and the House of Lords receive ministerial appointments, including appointment to the Cabinet on the advice of the Prime Minister (PM). The Cabinet is composed of about 20 ministers. The largest minority party becomes the official Opposition, with its own leader and *Shadow* Cabinet.

shadow /ˈʃadəʊ/ *n* — (usually as modifier) the opposition counterpart of a government minister or ministry

By modern convention the Prime Minister always sits in the House of Commons.

(6) PM presides over the Cabinet, is responsible for the *allocation* of function among ministers and informs the Queen at regular meeting of the general business of the Government. As members of the legislature, government ministers are answerable to Parliament for the activities of their departments and for the general conduct of national policies. The Prime Minister is questioned twice a week. The Commons can force a government to leave office. Debates in the Commons provide an opportunity for MPs to look at the creation and *amendment* of laws as well as national and international issues and can be on any subject. Votes are often taken to see whether a majority of Members either support or reject any discussed laws or proposals.

allocation /ˌælə'keɪʃn/ *n* — an amount of money, space, etc. that is given to someone for a particular purpose; the act of giving something to someone for a particular purpose
allocate /'aləkeɪt/ *v* — distribute (resources or duties) for a particular purpose
amendment /ə'mɛn(d)m(ə)nt/ *n* — a minor change or addition designed to improve a text, piece of legislation

(7) Parliament has to *ensure* that the Government is working *properly* and its decisions are in the public interest. Every Member, no matter what party he or she belongs to, has the duty of examining the work of the Government but it is the Opposition which plays the leading part in this.

ensure /ɛn'ʃɔ:/, /ɪn'ʃɔ:/, /ɛn'ʃʊə/, /ɪn'ʃʊə/ *v* — make certain that (something) will occur or be the case
properly /'prɑpərli/ *adv* — in a way that is correct and/or appropriate; in a way that is socially or morally acceptable
proper /'prɒpə/ *adj* — denoting something that is truly what it is said or regarded to be; genuine

(8) In both Chambers the two sides, Government and Opposition, sit facing one another. Government Ministers sit on the front *bench*

bench /bɛn(t)ʃ/ *n* — a long seat for several people, typically made of wood or

on the Government side of the Chamber. They are therefore known as the Government front-benchers. Those MPs who belong to the same party as the Government but who do not hold a Government post are known as Government back-benchers. The Official Opposition is divided in the same way. On the Opposition front bench sit the Official Opposition spokesmen, e. g. on Education, Employment or Defence. Each of these spokesmen concentrates on studying the work of particular Government Department. The senior spokesmen from the Official Opposition are often *referred to* as the Shadow Cabinet because they shadow the work of the Government. Opposition spokesmen must keep themselves properly informed, not only to enable them to *challenge* the Government but also because one day, after an election, they might become Government Ministers themselves.

stone; a long seat in Parliament for politicians of a specified party
refer to /rɪˈfəː/ *v* — mention or allude to
challenge /ˈtʃæləndʒ/ *v* — to question whether a statement or an action is right, legal, etc.; to refuse to accept something; to invite someone to enter a competition, fight, etc.; to suggest strongly that someone should do something (especially when you think that they might be unwilling to do it)
challenge /ˈtʃalɪn(d)ʒ/ *n* — a call to someone to participate in a competitive situation or fight to decide who is superior in terms of ability or strength

(9) As to the judiciary, it *determines* common law and interprets Acts of Parliament. The House of Lords is a Court of Justice, the highest Court of Appeal in Britain. The House of Lords is the final court of appeal, but in practice appeals are heard by life peers who are senior judges or who have held high judicial office. Other peers do not take part in the judiciary work of the Lords.

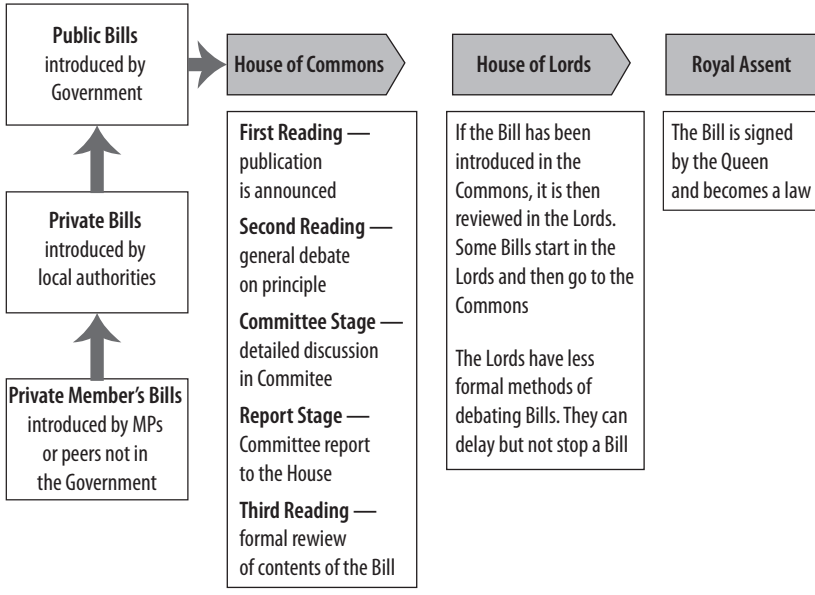
determine /dɪˈtəːmɪn/ *v* — cause (something) to occur in a particular way or to have a particular nature; ascertain or establish exactly by research or calculation

1. Explain the following abbreviations, words or expressions using the information from the text:

- MP;
- Member of the House of Lords;
- Goverment Minister;

- Member of the Shadow Cabinet;
- Member of the Opposition;
- PM;
- The Lord Chancelor;
- The Speaker;
- Front benchers;
- Back benchers.

2. Explain how a law is introduced and finally passed in Britain, using this diagram.



3. Draw a diagram of how you imagine Parliament might look like.

4. Look at the following diagram. Compare your diagram with this one. Make a report "The Political System of Great Britain" (using the diagram).

<table>
<tr><td colspan="5">Sovereign</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">the legislative</td><td colspan="2">the executive</td><td>the judiciary</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Parliament</td><td>Goverment
Prime Minister</td><td>Official
opposition</td><td>the House
of Lords</td></tr>
<tr><td>the House
of Commons</td><td>the House
of Lords</td><td rowspan="2">22 ministers
Cabinet</td><td rowspan="2">22
ministers
Shadow
Cabinet</td><td>Lord Chancelor</td></tr>
<tr><td>Speaker
(a MP chosen
by other MPs)</td><td>Lord
Chancelor</td><td>30 Law Lords
12 of them —
judges</td></tr>
<tr><td>650 elected
MPs</td><td>800 peers
(the majority
are life peers)</td><td>22 MPs chosen
by the Prime
Minister
of the UK</td><td></td><td></td></tr>
</table>

Put the paragraphs in the right order. Underline the main ideas contained in the text. Note down the key words in the margins. Limit your choice to a maximum of 10 words.

(…) The British monarchy is the oldest part of the system of government in this country. It existed some four hundred years before Parliament and three centuries before the first courts of law, and an almost unbroken line of kings and queens can be traced back for over a thousand years. The current UK monarch is Queen Elizabeth II. She herself is descended from the Saxon monarchys who united England in the ninth century and from William the Conqueror, whose victory at the battle of Hastings brought the Normans to power in 1066.

(…) Cromwell died in 1658 and was succeeded as protector by his son, Richard, but Richard had little aptitude for the part he was now called upon to play and abdicated eight months later. After Richard Cromwell's resignation, the repub-

lic slowly fell apart and Charles II was eventually invited to resume his father's throne. In May 1660, Charles II entered London in triumph. The monarchy had been restored.

(…) The Acts of Union, passed by the English and Scottish Parliaments in 1707, led to the creation of the United Kingdom of Great Britain on 1 May of that year. The UK Parliament met for the first time in October 1707. The Act of Union of 1707 merged England and Scotland into a single state of Great Britain and created a single Parliament at Westminster. The development of the royal style and the titles reflects the union of the kingdoms of England and Scotland in 1707, the union with Ireland in 1801 and, in the second half of the twentieth century, the transformation of the old British Empire into today's Commonwealth.

(…) The only break in the continuity of the monarchy occurred over three hundred years ago, when in 1649, the defeat of Charles I at the swords and guns of Oliver Cromwell's parliamentary army led to Britain becoming a republic.

(…) She has resigned for over forty years, epitomizing the role of a constitutional monarch in an age of republics and presidents.

(…) Not, however, that it has remained unchanged. The late sixteen hundreds saw the establishment of a limited constitutional monarchy and though considerable executive power continued to be wielded through much of the eighteenth century, the next one hundred years, including the hugely influential reign of Queen Victoria, saw the monarch's active role in politics re-

duced to the point where it can accurately be said: “The Queen reigns but she does not rule”.

1. *Share the information from the reconstructed text and complete the following timeline:*

1066 —
1649 —
1660 —
1707 —
1801 —

2. Explain this statement: “The Queen reigns but she does not rule”. Study the royal family tree below (Image 4).

3. Continue the list of questions using the Royal family tree (Image 4).

- What relations is Queen Elizabeth II to Prince Harry of Wales?
- How long has Queen Elizabeth II been reigning since 1952?
- What are the names of all Queen’s grandchildren?
- _____
- _____
- _____
- _____

4. Answer your friends’ questions, looking at the Royal family tree.

5. You are the Queen — write a letter to a noble friend describing activities in your typical day. Now imagine you are the following and do the same: Prime Minister, member of the House of Lords, member of the House of Commons, the Speaker.

6. You have been asked to take part in the debate “Monarchy or Republic”. As we know “republic is a state in which power is held by the people and their elected representatives and which has a president rather than a monarch.” Which do you think is preferable? Prepare some arguments to support your view point. Practise different ways of responding to your partner’s arguments.

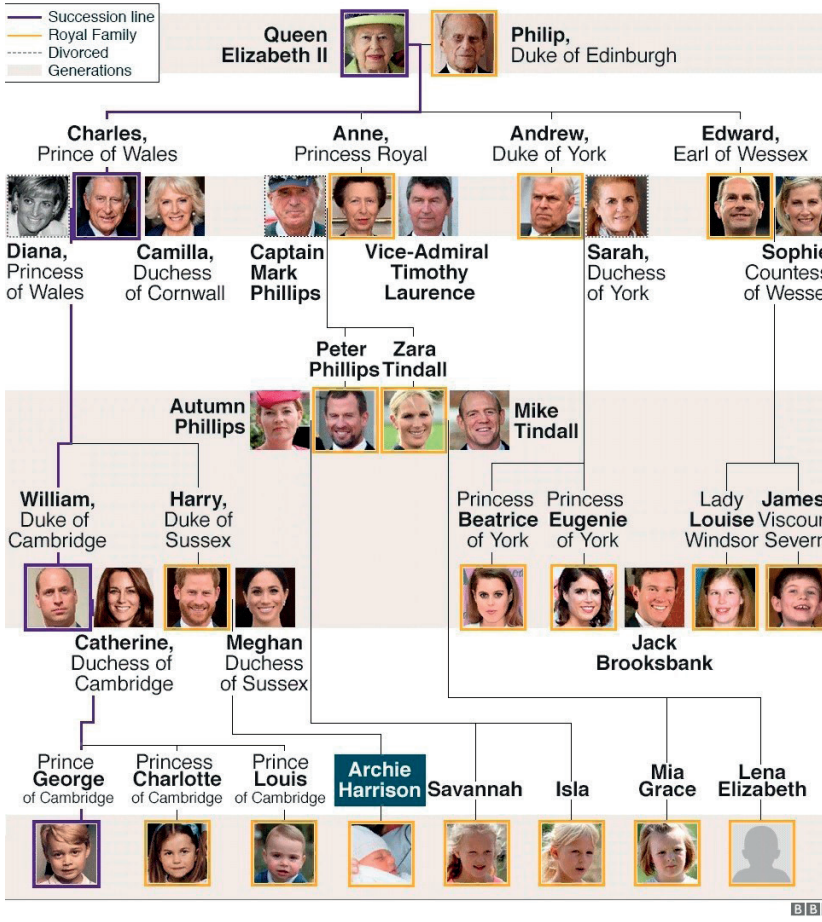


Image 4. The Royal family*
From *BBC*. URL: https://www.bbc.com/news/uk-23272491
(date of access: 09.07.2019)

* "New Prince" was born on April, 23, 2018 and named Louis Arthur Charles of Cambridge.

7. Read the short biography of Winston Churchill from GOV.UK below.

Winston Churchill was born on 30 November 1874, in Blenheim Palace, Oxfordshire and was of rich, aristocratic ancestry. Although achieving poor grades at school, his early fascination with militarism saw him join the Royal Cavalry in 1895. As a soldier and part-time journalist, Churchill travelled widely, including trips to Cuba, Afghanistan, Egypt and South Africa.

Churchill was elected as Conservative MP for Oldham in 1900, before defecting to the Liberal Party in 1904 and spending the next decade climbing the ranks of the Liberal government. He was First Lord of the Admiralty (the civil/political head of the Royal Navy) by the time of the disastrous Gallipoli campaign, which he created. Heavily criticised for this error, he resigned from this position and travelled to the Western Front to fight himself.

The interwar years saw Churchill again 'cross the floor' from the Liberals, back to the Conservative Party. He served as Chancellor of the Exchequer from 1924, when he controversially opted for Britain to re-join the Gold Standard. Following the Tory electoral defeat in 1929, Churchill lost his seat and spent much of the next 11 years out of office, mainly writing and making speeches. Although he was alone in his firm opposition to Indian Independence, his warnings against the Appeasement of Nazi Germany were proven correct when the Second World War broke out in 1939.

Following Neville Chamberlain's resignation in 1940, Churchill was chosen to succeed him as Prime Minister of an all-party coalition government.

Churchill, who also adopted the self-created position of Minister for Defence, was active both in administrative and diplomatic functions in prosecuting the British war effort. Some of his most memorable speeches were given in this period, and are credited with stimulating British morale during periods of great hardship. However, Labour leader Clement Attlee's unexpected General Election victory in 1945 saw Churchill out of office and once again concentrating on public speaking. In his 1946 speech in the USA, the instinctive pro-American famously declared that "an iron curtain has descended across the Continent", and warned of the continued danger from a powerful Soviet Russia.

By his re-election in 1951, Churchill was, in the words of Roy Jenkins, "gloriously unfit for office". Ageing and increasingly unwell, he often conducted business from his bedside, and while his powerful personality and oratory ability endured, the Prime Minister's leadership was less decisive than during the war. His second term was most notable for the Conservative Party's acceptance of Labour's newly created Welfare State, and Churchill's effect on domestic policy was limited. His later attempts at decreasing the developing Cold War through personal diplomacy failed to produce significant results, and poor health forced him to resign in 1955, making way for his Foreign Secretary and Deputy Prime Minister, Anthony Eden.

Churchill died in 1965, and was honoured with a state funeral.

From *GOV.UK.* URL: https://www.gov.uk/government/history/past-prime-ministers/winston-churchill (date of access: 09.07.2019)

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

Rules and traditions of Parliament

The origins of Parliament go back to the 13th century, so there are many rules, customs and traditions that help explain its workings.

Much of parliamentary procedure has developed through continued use over the centuries and is not written in the Standing Orders. This is sometimes known as 'custom and practice'.

The practice of bills being 'read' three times in both Houses is not in the Standing Orders for example. Other procedures have developed through precedents such as rulings made by the Speaker and resolutions of the House.

Erskine May

Erskine May was the Clerk of the House of Commons between 1871 and 1886. He wrote 'Treatise on the Law, Privileges, Proceedings and Usage of Parliament' which is considered the authoritative source on parliamentary procedure. This book is now in its 24th edition.

It provides details of observed 'rules' within the House, whether they relate to Standing Orders (and are therefore regulated by the House), traditional practice or whether they derive from 'Speaker's Rulings'. It is not available on the internet but will be in public libraries.

Where Members sit and speak

By convention, Ministers sit on the front bench on the right hand of the Speaker: the Chief Whip usually sits in this row immediately next to the gangway. Parliamentary Private Secretaries usually sit in the row behind their minister.

Official Opposition spokespersons use the front bench to the Speaker's left. Minority or smaller parties sit on the benches below the gangway on the left.

There is nothing sacrosanct about these places and on occasions when a Member has deliberately chosen to occupy a place on the front bench or on the opposite side of the House from their usual position there is no redress for such action.

Members may speak only from where they were called, which must be within the House. They may not speak from the floor of the House between the red lines (traditional supposed to be two sword-lengths apart). Also, the Speaker will not call a Member in the gallery if there is room downstairs. Members must stand whilst speaking but if they are unable to do so they are allowed to address the House seated.

The form and style of debate in the House of Commons

The style of debate in the House has traditionally been one of cut-and-thrust; listening to other Members' speeches and intervening in them in spontaneous reaction to opponents' views.

This style of debate can make the Commons Chamber a rather noisy place with robustly expressed opinion, many interventions, expressions of approval or disapproval and, sometimes, of repartee and banter.

Ultimately it is the Chair, The Speaker of the House of Commons, who controls the House and who speaks and when. Members have the right, when speaking, to be heard without unendurable background noise (deliberate or accidental) and the Chair will call for order if it

appears there is an attempt to drown out a Member or when a number of Members are leaving the Chamber, or conversing loudly.

Traditions of Parliament

The colours of the Houses of Parliament

A tradition that stands out to most visitors to Parliament is the difference between the colours which are used in the Lords and Commons parts of the building.

Green is the principal colour for furnishing and fabrics throughout the House of Commons, with the green benches of the Chamber perhaps the most recognisable of these. The first authoritative mention of the use of green in the Chamber occured in 1663.

In the House of Lords, red is similarly employed in upholstery, hansard, notepaper etc. This colour most likely stems from the use by monarchs of red as a royal colour and its consequent employment in the room where the Monarch met their court and nobles.

Living Heritage: the Palace's interior

Dragging the Speaker of the House of Commons

When a new Speaker of the House of Commons is elected, the successful candidate is physically dragged to the Chair by other MPs.

This tradition has its roots in the Speaker's function to communicate the Commons' opinions to the monarch. Historically, if the monarch didn't agree with the message being communicated then the early death of the Speaker could follow. Therefore, as you can imagine, previous Speakers required some gentle persuasion to accept the post.

Prayers

Each sitting in both Houses begins with prayers that follow the Christian faith. In the Commons the Speaker's Chaplain usually reads the prayers. In the Lords a senior bishop (Lord Spiritual) who sits in the Lords usually reads the prayers.

MPs can use prayers cards to reserve seats in the chamber for the remainder of that sitting day. These 'prayer cards' are dated and must be obtained personally by the Member who wishes to use them from an on duty attendant before the House meets.

Catching the Speaker's eye

To participate in a debate in the House of Commons or at question time, MPs have to be called by the Speaker. MPs usually rise or half-rise from their seats in a bid to get the Speaker's attention — this is known as 'catching the Speaker's eye'.

Voting

When MPs vote on debates or legislation it is called a division. When MPs vote they say 'aye' or 'no'. In the Lords, Members vote saying 'content' or 'not content'.

For major votes the House divides into the voting lobbies, two corridors that run either side of the chamber, and members are counted as they enter into each.

Dress

The dress of MPs has of course changed throughout history. The dress of Members these days is generally that which might ordinarily be worn for a fairly formal business transaction. The Speaker has, on a number of occasions, taken exception to informal clothing, including the non-wearing of jackets and ties by men.

The Lord Speaker on the Woolsack

The Woolsack is the seat of the Lord Speaker in the House of Lords Chamber. The Woolsack is a large, wool-stuffed cushion or seat covered with red cloth.

The Lord Speaker presides over business in the House of Lords, but does not control them like the Speaker in the Commons, as Members of the Lords regulate their own discussions.

Find out more about the role of the Lord Speaker

If a Deputy Speaker presides in the absence of the Lord Speaker, then that individual uses the Woolsack.

When the House of Lords is sitting, the Mace is placed on the rear of the Woolsack, behind the Lord Speaker.

Judge's Woolsack

In front of the Woolsack in the House of Lords Chamber is a larger cushion known as the Judges' Woolsack. During the State Opening of Parliament, the Judges' Woolsack is occupied by senior judges. This is a reminder of medieval Parliaments, when judges attended to offer legal advice. During normal sittings of the House, any Member of the Lords may sit on it.

General Public in the Houses of Parliament

The general public is allowed into those parts of the House of Commons not exclusively for the use of Members. The Serjeant at Arms is able to take into custody non-Members who are in any part of the House or gallery reserved for Members, and members of the public who misconduct themselves or do not leave when asked to do so. The House of Lords is also open to the public and you can watch business in the chamber and select committees for free.

From *Parliament UK*. URL: https://www.parliament.uk/about/how/role/customs/ (date of access: 09.07.2019)

Legislative process: taking a Bill through Parliament

An overview of the process by which Bills become law

A Bill is a proposed law which is introduced into Parliament. Once a Bill has been debated and then approved by each House of Parliament, and has received Royal Assent, it becomes law and is known as an Act.

Any Member of Parliament can introduce a Bill. Some Bills represent agreed government policy, and these are introduced into Parliament by ministers. Other Bills are known as Private Member's Bills, or (in the House of Lords) private peer's Bills.

This guide is about Bills which affect the general law of the land. Special Parliamentary procedures apply to Bills which apply only to particular people or places, and the government has little or no involvement in this type of legislation.

Bills and Acts are often referred to as primary legislation. An Act may delegate power to a government minister to make orders, regulations or rules. These are known as secondary (or subordinate) legislation.

The decision to legislate

For each session of Parliament, the government will have a legislative programme, which is a plan of the Bills that it will ask Parliament to consider in that session (the period between elections is divided up into sessions, and each of those sessions lasts about a year). Other Bills may be passed each session that are not part of the legislative programme. These may for example be emergency Bills required to deal with a particular issue that has arisen, or they may be private member's Bills, introduced by a member who is not a part of the government.

If a government department has a proposal for a Bill that it wants to be included in the legislative programme for a session, it must submit a bid for the Bill to the Parliamentary Business and Legislation (PBL) Committee of the Cabinet. The bid will usually be needed about a year before the beginning of the session in question. PBL Committee will consider all of the bids for that session and make a recommendation to Cabinet about the provisional content of the programme.

In considering whether to recommend that a Bill should be given a provisional slot, PBL Committee will consider factors such as the need for the Bill (and whether a similar outcome can be achieved without legislation), its relationship to the political priorities of the Government, the progress that has been made in working up the proposals for the Bill and whether the Bill has been published in draft for consultation.

Once the provisional programme has been agreed by Cabinet, PBL Committee will review it in the lead-up to the beginning of the session. About a month before the start of the session the Cabinet will finalise the programme. This will be announced in the Queen's Speech at the state opening of Parliament, which begins the session.

The policy contained in the Bill will also need agreement from the appropriate policy committee of the Cabinet.

Preparation of the Bill

If a Bill is given a slot in the legislative programme, the department concerned will create a Bill team to co-ordinate its preparation and passage through Parliament. This will consist of a Bill manager and other officials working on the Bill. The other key players in the department will be the officials with lead responsibility for the policies in the Bill and the department's legal advisers.

The policy officials will prepare policy instructions for the departmental lawyers. These instructions will in turn form the basis of instructions to the Office of Parliamentary Counsel to draft the Bill. Instructions to counsel will set out the background and relevant current law and explain the changes in the law to be brought about by the Bill.

There will usually be at least two counsel assigned to the Bill, and larger Bills may well have more drafters. They will analyse the instructions and may have questions that need to be answered before drafting can begin. Once the drafters feel they have a clear idea of the policy, they will send drafts to the relevant departmental lawyer. The lawyer will discuss the drafts with the relevant policy officials and send comments back.

The first draft of a clause or set of clauses for a topic is rarely the final word on that topic, and the process of drafting and commenting on drafts will continue until the drafters and the department are happy that the right result has been achieved by the draft in the clearest possible way.

Some provisions in a Bill may require the agreement of a department other than the one sponsoring the Bill. For example, the Ministry of Justice's criminal offences gateway requires all proposals for the creation of new offences in England and Wales to be cleared by the Secretary of State for Justice.

If the provisions of the Bill apply to Wales or extend to Scotland or Northern Ireland, it may be necessary for the department or the drafter to consult the devolved administration in the relevant part of the UK. Provisions in a Bill which relate to matters that have been devolved to the National Assembly for Wales, the Scottish Parliament or the Northern Ireland Assembly will usually need the consent of that body.

Towards introduction

Although a Bill may have a slot in the legislative programme, it cannot be introduced until it has been specifically cleared for introduction by a meeting of PBL Committee.

The Committee will consider the final (or near-final) draft of the Bill together with a range of other documents. Some of these, like the Explanatory Notes, will be published alongside the Bill after introduction. Others, like the department's Parliamentary Handling Strategy and its assessment of the relationship between the Bill and the European Convention on Human Rights, are for the Committee's consideration only.

If PBL Committee is satisfied that the Bill is ready and that other legal and procedural issues have been resolved, it will approve its introduction subject to any necessary minor and drafting changes. The Committee will also decide whether the Bill should start in the House of Commons or the House of Lords (see further below).

Some Bills are published in draft for consultation before introduction. The Bill may then go through a process of pre-legislative scrutiny where it is considered by a Parliamentary committee or committees. The committee will take evidence and make recommendations to the Government on the Bill. These recommendations, together with the consultation responses from members of the public, may mean that elements of the Bill are modified before introduction. Publication of a Bill in draft still needs the agreement of PBL Committee, although it will normally be cleared by correspondence rather than at a meeting.

Parliamentary Stages

Most Bills can begin either in the House of Commons or in the House of Lords. The Government will make this decision based on the need to make sure each House has a balanced programme of legislation to consider each session. However, certain Bills must start in the Commons, such as a Bill whose main aim is the imposition of taxation (the annual Finance Bill is an example of this). Bills of major constitutional importance also conventionally start in the Commons.

Most Bills will need to go through the following stages in each House before becoming law (what is said below applies to either House except where indicated).

First reading

This is a purely formal stage, and there is no debate on the Bill.

Second reading

This is a debate on the main principles of the Bill, held in the chamber. A Government minister will open the debate by setting out the case for the Bill and explaining its provisions. The Opposition will respond and then other members are free to discuss it. The Government will close the debate by responding to the points made. No amendments can be made to the text of the Bill at this stage, although members may give an idea of the changes they will be proposing at later stages. At the end of the debate the House will vote on the Bill. If the vote is lost by the Government, the Bill cannot proceed any further, though it is rare for a Government Bill to be defeated at this stage.

Committee stage

This is a line-by-line consideration of the detail of the Bill. In the Commons this process may be carried out by a specially convened committee of MPs (a Public Bill Committee) that reflects the strength of the parties in the House as a whole. Alternatively committee stage may be taken in the chamber (in which case it is called Committee of the Whole House). In the Lords the committee stage will take place in the chamber or elsewhere in the Palace of Westminster; either way any peer can participate.

A Public Bill Committee in the Commons can take oral and written evidence on the Bill. In either House the Committee will decide whether each clause of the Bill should remain in it, and will consider any amendments tabled by the Government or other members.

The amendments tabled may propose changes to the existing provisions of the Bill or may involve adding wholly new material. However, there are limits to what can be added to a particular Bill, as the amendments must be sufficiently close to its subject matter when introduced.

Government amendments to Bills (in Committee or at other stages: see below) may be changes to make sure the Bill works as intended, may give effect to new policy or may be concessionary amendments to ease the handling of the Bill. Amendments in the last category will respond

to points made at an earlier stage or will have been tabled to avoid a Government defeat at the stage in question. Unless the amendments are purely technical in their effect, they will need the agreement of PBL Committee before tabling, and substantial changes in policy will need policy clearance too.

Report stage

In both Houses this stage takes place in the chamber. Only amendments are discussed, so if none are tabled this will be a purely formal stage. As in Committee the amendments may change what is in the Bill already or may involve new provisions being added.

Report stage is also referred to as Consideration in the Commons.

Third reading

In the Commons this is another general discussion of the Bill which invariably takes place immediately after Report. No amendments are possible. In the Lords, Third Reading will take place on a later day, and tidying up amendments can be tabled.

Later stages

Both Houses must agree on the text of a Bill before it can become an Act. This means that if the Bill is amended in the second House, it must return to the first House for those amendments to be considered. The first House can reject the amendments, make changes to them or suggest alternatives. A Bill may move backwards and forwards between the two Houses before agreement is reached, so this stage is sometimes called "ping pong".

The time taken to go through all these stages depends on the length of the Bill, how controversial it is and whether it needs to be passed particularly quickly. An emergency Bill may be passed in a matter of days, whereas a larger Bill may be introduced at the beginning of the session and only passed at the end a year later.

Royal Assent and beyond

A Bill that has been passed by both Houses becomes law once it has been given Royal Assent and this has been signified to Parliament. It will

then become an Act. Even then the Act may not have any practical effect until later on. Most provisions in an Act will either come into operation within a set period after Royal Assent (commonly two months later) or at a time fixed by the government. This gives the government and those people who are directly affected by the Act time to plan accordingly. The government may need to fill in some of the details of the new scheme by making orders or regulations under powers contained in the Act, for example to deal with procedural matters.

Three to five years after a Bill has been passed, the department responsible for an Act will normally review how it has worked in practice and submit an assessment of this to the relevant Commons departmental committee. The committee will then decide whether it wants to carry out a fuller post-legislative enquiry into the Act.

From *GOV.UK*. URL: https://www.gov.uk/guidance/legislative-process-taking-a-bill-through-parliament (date of access: 09.07.2019)

The House of Lords

The House of Lords (see Image 5) is the second chamber of the UK Parliament. It is independent from, and complements the work of, the elected House of Commons. The Lords shares the task of making and shaping laws and checking and challenging the work of the government.

Making laws

Members spend more than half their time in the House considering bills (draft laws). All bills have to be considered by both Houses of Parliament before they can become law. During several stages, members examine each bill, line-by-line, before it becomes an Act of Parliament (actual law). Many of these bills affect our everyday lives, covering areas such as welfare, health and education.

In-depth consideration of public policy

Members use their extensive individual experience to investigate public policy. Much of this work is done in select committees — small groups appointed to consider specific policy areas. In the 2016–17 ses-

sion, House of Lords select committees produced 41 reports on subjects including the Brexit process with six Brexit reports in six days, the 'Great Repeal Bill' and delegated powers, children and the internet and autonomous vehicles. Many select committee meetings involve questioning expert witnesses working in the field which is the subject of the inquiry. These meetings are open to the public.

Holding government to account

Members scrutinise the work of the government during question time and debates in the chamber, where government ministers must respond. In the 2016–17 session, members held the government to account with 7,380 oral and written questions and 154 debates on topical issues and public policy ranging from the role of libraries and independent bookshops to the impact of Brexit on the NHS and social care. The public is welcome to visit and sit in the galleries overlooking the chamber during business.

What has the Lords changed?

Making a difference in recent years, the House of Lords has persuaded the government to make policy changes on a diverse range of issues. These include:

- delaying cuts to tax credits until protections for low paid workers are in place;
- relocating unaccompanied refugee children from Europe to the UK safeguards for immigration-related detention of vulnerable people, particularly pregnant women;
- electronic voting for industrial action ballots;
- protecting landlord and tenant money in a client money protection scheme for property agents;
- banning smoking in cars that carry children;
- ensuring that children with special educational needs are afforded the same legal protection in academies as in other mainstream schools.

From *Parliament UK*. URL: https://www.parliament.uk/business/lords/work-of-the-house-of-lords/what-the-lords-does/#jump-link-1 (date of access: 09.07.2019)

Image 5. The House of Lords
From *The Sun*. URL: https://www.thesun.co.uk/news/2945935/house-of-lords-commons-brexit-hereditary-peers-members/ (date of access: 09.07.2019)

Image 6. The House of Commons
From *BBC.* URL: https://ichef.bbci.co.uk/live-experience/cps/1024/mcs/media/images/78288000/jpg/_78288802_78184957.jpg (date of access: 09.07.2019)

The House of Commons

The UK public elects 650 Members of Parliament (MPs) to represent their interests and concerns in the House of Commons (see Image 6). MPs consider and propose new laws, and can scrutinise government policies by asking ministers questions about current issues either in the Commons Chamber or in Committees.

The House of Commons is the publicly elected chamber of Parliament. Members of the Commons debate the big political issues of the day and proposals for new laws.

Parliament is an essential part of UK politics. Its main roles are examining and challenging the work of the government, debating and passing all laws and enabling the Government to raise taxes.

Law making is one of Parliament's essential roles. Find out how new laws are made and learn how a Bill passes through Parliament and becomes an Act.

Much of the work of the House of Commons takes place in committees, made up of around 10 to 50 MPs. These committees examine issues in detail, from government policy and proposed new laws, to wider topics like the economy.

The Speaker

The Speaker (see Image 7–8) of the House of Commons chairs debates in the Commons Chamber and the holder of this office is an MP who has been elected by other MPs.

Image 7. The Speaker's Seat
From *Parliament.* URL: https://assets3.parliament.uk/iv/main-thumb-wide//ImageVault/Images/id_6293/scope_0/ImageVaultHandler.aspx.jpg (date of access: 09.07.2019)

Image 8. The Speaker
From *Parliament.* URL: https://www.parliament.uk/business/commons/the-speaker/speeches/speakers-lecture-series/ (date of access: 09.07.2019)

The Speaker is the chief officer and highest authority of the House of Commons and must remain politically impartial at all times. During debates the Speaker keeps order and calls MPs to speak.

The Speaker also represents the Commons to the Monarch, the Lords and other authorities and chairs the House of Commons Commission. The current Speaker is Rt Hon John Bercow, MP for Buckingham.

Prayers

Sittings in both Houses begin with prayers. These follow the Christian faith and there is currently no multi-faith element. Attendance is voluntary. The practice of prayers is believed to have started in about 1558, and was common practice by 1567. The present form of prayers probably dates from the reign of Charles II. Members of the public are not allowed into the public galleries during prayers.

A typical working day

When Parliament is in Session, the House of Commons generally meets from Mondays to Thursdays and on most Fridays.

The work of the House is regulated by an elaborate code of procedure. The Government determines the business and the order in which it is taken, although some specific slots and days are given over to Opposition parties and "backbench" Members.

In the Chamber the day's business always begins with prayers followed by any items of private business, which are taken formally (without debate). The main business of the day follows.

Oral questions

On Monday to Thursday Government Ministers from a particular Department or Departments answer questions. The Prime Minister has a weekly question time, on Wednesdays. At question time the Speaker calls the name of the person with the first question in the *Order of Business.* As the text of the question is already printed, the Member says simply (for example) "*Number one".* The relevant Minister reads a prepared reply, after which the Member is then allowed a "supplementary" question and the Minister again replies. Other MPs are then called to ask supplementary questions.

Political parties

The UK has many political parties, the main three being Conservative (see Image 9), Labour (see Image 11) and Liberal Democrat (see Image 10). These three work in both the House of Commons and House of Lords.

Political parties in the Commons

In addition to the main three parties, the Commons has a range of other political groups (see Image 12, 16) also elected by the public. This includes nationalist organizations like Plaid Cymru (Wales, see Image 15) and the Scottish National Party (see Image 14), Northern Ireland's various political parties and minority parties like the Green Party (see Image 13) or Respect.

Political parties in the Lords

Outside of the main parties there are a small number of Members that are not affiliated with a main political party and those belonging to minority groups. In addition there are a limited number of Church of England archbishops and bishops and the Crossbench Peers group.

The Crossbench Peers group is currently the second largest group in the Lords (after Labour); and is formed by independent Members who don't take a party whip — which means that they are not told how to vote by a political party.

Conservative Party

Image 9. Prime Minister Boris Johnson, the leader of Conservative Party
From *Rosbalt*. URL: https://img.rosbalt.ru/photobank/1/0/c/8/TxvkWyRq-800.jpg
(date of access: 09.07.2019)

Liberal Democratic Party

Image 10. John Vincent Cable, the leader of Liberal Democratic Party
From *BBC*. URL: https://www.bbc.com/news/uk-politics-40655847
(date of access: 09.07.2019)

Labour Party

Image 11. Jeremy Bernard Corbyn, the leader of Labour Party
From *Twitter.* URL: https://twitter.com/jeremycorbyn (date of access: 09.07.2019)

Independence Party

Image 12. Gerard Joseph Batten, the leader of Independence Party
From *Twitter.* URL: https://twitter.com/gerardbattenmep (date of access: 09.07.2019)

Green Party

Image 13. Jonathan Bartley & Siân Berry, the co-leaders of Green Party
From *BBC*. URL: https://www.bbc.com/news/uk-politics-45409060
(date of access: 09.07.2019)

Scottish National Party

Image 14. Nicola Sturgeon, the leader of the Scottish National Party
From *Twitter*. URL: https://twitter.com/nicolasturgeon (date of access: 09.07.2019).

Plaid Cymru

Image 15. Adam Price, the leader of Plaid Cymru
From *Twitter.* URL: https://twitter.com/Adamprice (date of access: 09.07.2019)

British National Party

Image 16. Adam Walker, the leader of the BNP
From *The Guardian.* URL: https://www.theguardian.com/politics/2017/jan/31/bnp-leader-coaching-children-despite-lifetime-teaching-ban (date of access: 09.07.2019)

General Election 2017: full results and analysis

This information contains detailed results and analysis of the 2017 General Election, held on 8th June. It provides election results by party & constituency, as well as analysis of voter trends, MP characteristics, and more. The 2017 General Election resulted in a hung Parliament, with no party winning an overall majority. The Conservative Party won the largest number of seats and votes, taking 317 seats and 42.3% of the vote, up from 36.8% in 2015. The Labour Party won 262 seats, and 40.0% of the vote, up from 232 seats and 30.4% of the vote in 2015. The Liberal Democrats won 12 seats, a net gain of 4 seats, and 7.4% of the vote. The Scottish National Party won 35 seats, down from 56 seats in 2015. Plaid Cymru won 4 seats in Wales, one more than in 2015. In Northern Ireland, the Democratic Unionist Party (DUP) won 10 seats, gaining two, while Sinn Féin won 7, gaining 3.

70 seats changed hands. The Conservatives made 20 gains, but lost 33 seats for a net change of –13. Labour gained 36 seats and lost six, for a net change of +30. The Liberal Democrats lost four seats but gained eight, for a net change of +4. The SNP lost 21 seats and made no gains.

Between them, the Conservatives and Labour won 82.3% of the UK vote — the highest since 1970. This is a notable increase compared with 2015, when their combined vote share was 67.2%. The Conservative vote share was highest in the East of England (54.6%), whereas the Labour vote share was highest in the North East (55.4%). UKIP's share of the vote fell from 12.6% in 2015 to 1.8% in 2017. The Green Party saw its share halved to 1.8%.

Turnout was 68.8%, up from 66.3% in 2015, the highest General Election turnout since 1997. The total registered electorate was 46.8 million, up from 46.4 million in 2015. The South West had the highest turnout (71.8%), whereas Northern Ireland had the lowest (65.4%). Turnout increased across all regions and nations in the UK, apart from Scotland where it fell by 4.6% points.

From *Parliament.* URL: http://researchbriefings.parliament.uk/ResearchBriefing/Summary/CBP-7979#fullreport (date of access: 09.07.2019)

Brexit

The UK voted to leave the European Union in the 23 June 2016 EU referendum. The government is now preparing to leave the EU in the best possible way for the UK's national interest.

The European Council adopted guidelines for phase two of the Brexit negotiations in December 2017 and new negotiating directives in January 2018. Phase two — on a transition/implementation period which will start the day after the UK leave the EU and end in December 2020 — started in February 2018. During the transition period the UK will not be a Member State but will continue to apply EU law.

A solution to the problem of how to avoid a hard border between Ireland and Northern Ireland remains an outstanding issue for this phase of the negotiations.

From Parliament. URL: https://researchbriefings.parliament.uk/ResearchBriefing/Summary/CDP-2018-0123 (date of access: 09.07.2019)

So, one of the key problems is the backstop, that is a guarantee that whatever happens during the negotiations between the EU and UK on the future relationship, the open border between Ireland and Northern Ireland will be maintained, and the Good Friday Agreement (The Northern Ireland peace process) respected. It is often described as an 'all weather insurance policy'.

Thus, the UK has missed an EU deadline to delay Brexit to 22 May 2019 and leave with a deal. Leaving the EU without a withdrawal agreement could be the result of various scenarios. No-deal Brexit is still the default outcome if MPs can't agree anything else and there are no further extensions. The deadline is 31 October 2019.

The greatest Briton (2002)

Churchill voted greatest Briton

Sir Winston Churchill has been named the greatest Briton of all time in a nationwide poll attracting more than a million votes.

Participants in the survey voted the Second World War leader top of the list of the country's 100 most significant individuals, with 447,423 votes.

He beat his nearest rival, engineer Isambard Kingdom Brunel, by more than 56,000 votes.

The final vote:

1. Churchill
2. Brunel
3. Diana
4. Darwin
5. Shakespeare

Image 17. Winston Churchill
From *Life.* URL: https://lifeonphoto.com/2011/12/legendarnye-fotografii-zhurnala-life (date of access: 09.07.2019)

6. Newton
7. Lennon
8. Elizabeth I
9. Nelson
10. Cromwell

Proceeds from phone votes will fund a permanent memorial to Churchill at a venue yet to be decided.

The result came after a lively two-hour live debate on BBC2 in which celebrities including former Tory minister Michael Portillo and TV presenter Jeremy Clarkson argued the case for their choices for greatest Briton.

It marked the conclusion of a month-long survey in which viewers cast their votes by telephone and e-mail.

From *BBC*. URL: http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/entertainment/2509465.stm (date of access: 09.07.2019)

Winston Churchill (see Image 17) is one of the best-known, and some say one of the greatest, statesmen of the 20th century. Though he was born into a life of privilege, he dedicated himself to public service. His legacy is a complicated one — he was an idealist and a pragmatist; an orator and a soldier; an advocate of progressive social reforms and an unapologetic elitist; a defender of democracy as well as of Britain's fading empire — but for many people in Great Britain and elsewhere, Winston Churchill is simply a hero.

Winston Churchill's early life

Winston Churchill came from a long line of English aristocrat-politicians. His father, Lord Randolph Churchill, was descended from the First Duke of Marlborough and was himself a well-known figure in Tory politics in the 1870s and 1880s. His mother, born Jennie Jerome, was an American heiress whose father was a stock speculator and part owner of *The New York Times*. (Rich American girls like Jerome who married European noblemen were known as "dollar princesses").

Churchill was born at the family's estate near Oxford on November 30, 1874. He was educated at the Harrow prep school, where he performed so poorly that he did not even bother to apply to Oxford

or Cambridge. Instead, in 1893 young Winston Churchill headed off to military school at Sandhurst.

Churchill: battles and books

After he left Sandhurst, Churchill traveled all around the British Empire as a soldier and as a journalist. In 1896, he went to India; his first book, published in 1898, was an account of his experiences in India's Northwest Frontier Province. In 1899, the London Morning Post sent him to cover the Boer War in South Africa, but he was captured by enemy soldiers almost as soon as he arrived. (News of Churchill's daring escape through a bathroom window made him a minor celebrity back home in Britain.) By the time he returned to England in 1900, the 26-year-old Churchill had published five books.

Churchill: "Crossing the chamber"

That same year, Winston Churchill joined the House of Commons as a Conservative. Four years later, he "crossed the chamber" and became a Liberal. His work on behalf of progressive social reforms such as an eight-hour workday, a government-mandated minimum wage, a state-run labor exchange for unemployed workers and a system of public health insurance infuriated his Conservative colleagues, who complained that this new Churchill was a traitor to his class.

Winston Churchill and World War I

In 1911, Churchill turned his attention away from domestic politics when he became the First Lord of the Admiralty (akin to the Secretary of the Navy in the U.S.). Noting that Germany was growing more and more bellicose, Churchill began to prepare Great Britain for war: he established the Royal Naval Air Service, modernized the British fleet and invented one of the earliest tanks.

Despite Churchill's prescience and preparation, World War I was a stalemate from the start. In an attempt to shake things up, Churchill proposed a military campaign that soon dissolved into disaster: the 1915 invasion of the Gallipoli Peninsula in Turkey. Churchill hoped that this offensive would drive Turkey out of the war and encourage the Balkan states to join the Allies, but Turkish resistance was much stiffer than

he had anticipated. After nine months and 250,000 casualties, the Allies withdrew in disgrace. After the debacle at Gallipoli, Churchill left the Admiralty.

Churchill: between the wars

During the 1920s and 1930s, Churchill bounced from government to government job, and in 1924 he rejoined the Conservatives. Especially after the Nazis came to power in 1933, Churchill spent a great deal of time warning his countrymen about the perils of German nationalism, but Britons were weary of war and reluctant to get involved in international affairs again. Likewise, the British government ignored Churchill's warnings and did all it could to stay out of Hitler's way. In 1938, Prime Minister Neville Chamberlain even signed an agreement giving Germany a chunk of Czechoslovakia — "throwing a small state to the wolves", Churchill scolded — in exchange for a promise of peace.

A year later, however, Hitler broke his promise and invaded Poland. Britain and France declared war. Chamberlain was pushed out of office, and Winston Churchill took his place as prime minister in May 1940.

Churchill: the "British bulldog"

"I have nothing to offer but blood, toil, tears and sweat." Churchill told the House of Commons in his first speech as Prime Minister. "We have before us many, many long months of struggle and of suffering. You ask, what is our policy? I can say: It is to wage war, by sea, land and air, with all our might and with all the strength that God can give us; to wage war against a monstrous tyranny, never surpassed in the dark, lamentable catalogue of human crime. That is our policy. You ask, what is our aim? I can answer in one word: It is victory, victory at all costs, victory in spite of all terror, victory, however long and hard the road may be; for without victory, there is no survival."

Just as Churchill predicted, the road to victory in World War II was long and difficult: France fell to the Nazis in June 1940. In July, German fighter planes began three months of devastating air raids on Britain herself. Though the future looked grim, Churchill did all he could to keep British spirits high. He gave stirring speeches in Parliament and on the radio. He persuaded U. S. President Franklin Roosevelt to provide war

supplies — ammunition, guns, tanks, planes — to the Allies, a programme known as Lend-Lease, before the Americans even entered the war.

Though Churchill was one of the chief architects of the Allied victory, war-weary British voters ousted the Conservatives and their prime minister from office just two months after Germany's surrender in 1945.

Churchill: fighting communism

The now-former prime minister spent the next several years warning Britons and Americans about the dangers of Soviet expansionism. In a speech in Fulton, Missouri, in 1946, for example, Churchill declared that an anti-democratic "Iron Curtain", "a growing challenge and peril to Christian civilization", had descended across Europe. Churchill's speech was the first time anyone had used that now-common phrase to describe the Communist threat.

In 1951, 77-year-old Winston Churchill became prime minister for the second time. He spent most of this term working (unsuccessfully) to build a sustainable détente between the East and the West. He retired from the post in 1955.

In 1953, Queen Elizabeth made Winston Churchill a knight of the Order of the Garter. Sir Winston Churchill won the Nobel Prize for Literature in 1953 for his six-volume history of World War II. He died in 1965, one year after retiring from Parliament.

From *History.* URL: http://www.history.com/topics/british-history/winston-churchill (date of access: 09.07.2019)

Who was Winston Churchill and why was he important?

Winston Churchill is one of the most famous Britons of the 20th century and led the country during the Second World War. He's a hero to many and his speeches are some of the most famous in history — there's even a statue of him outside Parliament. He's credited as being one of the driving forces that inspired the UK to keep fighting against Nazi Germany.

Winston Churchill was born in 1874. He became a Member of Parliament in 1900. He was British prime minister from 1940–1945 and again between 1951 and 1955.

Churchill is best remembered for successfully leading Britain through World War Two. He was famous for his inspiring speeches, and for his refusal to give in, even when things were going badly.

Many people consider him the greatest Briton of all time and he's almost certainly the most famous British Prime Minister.

Before World War Two started in 1939, he had warned about the rise of Hitler and the Nazis in Germany. He became British Prime Minister in 1940 after then-leader Neville Chamberlain resigned. Churchill's refusal to surrender to Nazi Germany inspired the country.

Churchill lost power after World War Two ended in 1945. But he became Prime Minister again in 1951, before resigning four years later.

He had very strong views about the British relationship with India and was opposed to self-rule. He also considered Ghandi a threat to the British Empire.

Churchill died on 24 January 1965 and was given a state funeral, an honour saved only for kings and queens, and sometimes other people of the highest national importance.

From *BBC*. URL: https://www.bbc.co.uk/newsround/31043477 (date of access: 09.07.2019)

Unit 4
EDUCATION IN THE UK

The following text will introduce you to the topic of Education in the UK. Make a headline to each paragraph. Outline the most important points in the text. Look the italicized words up in an English-English dictionary. Write down your comment in the margins.

TEXT

(1) There are many different types of school in Britain. There are, however, only three main systems: the *comprehensive*, the selective and the independent.

(2) *Compulsory* education begins at 5 in England, Wales and Scotland, and 4 in Northern Ireland, when children go to *infants'* schools or departments.

(3) At 7 many children move to *junior* schools or department. The usual age for transfer from primary to secondary schools is 11 in England, Wales and Northern Ireland. However, "first" schools take pupils aged 5 to 8, 9 or 10 and pupils within the 8 to 14 age range go to "*middle*" *schools*. In Scotland *primary schools* take children from 5 to 12.

(4) About of 90 per cent of state *secondary* school pupils in England, Wales and Scotland go to schools in the comprehensive system — a system introduced in the 1960s. The comprehen-

sive system is non-selective. This means that all children go from one school to another without taking any exams, and without been selected according to their *abilities*. Comprehensive schools provide a wide *range* of secondary education for all or most of all the children in a district within the 11- to 18-year age range (12 to 18 in Scotland). Sixth-form colleges are schools *providing* academic and non-academic education for students over 16. *Tertiary* colleges offer a range of full-time and part-time *vocational* courses for those over 16, as well as more academic courses. There will be hundreds of thousands more children at England's state secondary schools by 2027, according to new forecasts. Secondary pupil numbers are expected to rise by 14.7 per cent in the next 10 years, according to Department for Education (DfE) projections. The hike is fuelled by a baby boom in the early 2000s that is making its way through the education system, and is likely to spark fresh concerns about a squeeze on school places. The figures show the secondary school population is expected to hit around 3.3 million in 2027, which is 418,000 higher than in 2018.

(5) In some areas of Britain, you can still find a different, and older, system of education (introduced in 1944). This is a selective system — children are selected for certain schools according to their *ability*. All children go to a primary until the age of 11. They then take an examination called the 11-plus. Those who are *successful* go to a *grammar* school. Grammar schools offer a mainly academic education for the 11 to 18 or 19-year age group. Those who *fail* the exam go to a secondary modern school, where they *receive* an education which is less academic, and more

intended to *train* them for a job when they leave at the age of 16.

(6) Private education usually needs £25,000–30,000 a year institutions, often accessible to the financial elite. There are some schools that offer top class education for a lower price. Pupils don't have to follow the national curriculum, though all private schools must be registered with the government and are inspected regularly. About seven per cent of children go to *private* schools. There are three levels of private schools — primary schools (age four to eight) and preparatory (prep) schools (eight to 13). At the age of 13, children take an examination. If they pass, they go on to public school, where they usually *remain* until they are 18. Many prep and most public schools are *boarding schools* — the children live at the school during the school terms. Be careful — although these schools are called — "public" they are, in fact, private, and it can be very *expensive* to send a child to such a school.

(7) Boys and girls are taught together in most primary schools, and more than 80 per cent of pupils in state secondary schools in England and Wales, and 67 per cent in Northern Ireland *attend* mixed schools. In Scotland nearly all secondary schools are coeducational. Most independent schools for younger pupils are mixed, and while the *majority* of private secondary schools are single-sex, the tendency is towards more mixed education.

(8) Most state schools have to follow the national curriculum. The most common ones are:

• community schools, controlled by the local council and not influenced by business or religious groups;

• foundation schools and voluntary schools, which have more freedom to change the way they do things than community schools;

• academies, run by a governing body, independent from the local council — they can follow a different curriculum;

• grammar schools, run by the council, a foundation body or a trust — they select all or most of their pupils based on academic ability and there is often an exam to get in.

State schools are almost all day schools holding classes between Mondays and Fridays. The school year in England and Wales normally begins in early September and continues into the following July. In Scotland it runs generally from mid-August to the end of June and in Northern Ireland from mid-August to the end of June and in Northern Ireland from September to June. The year is divided into three terms of around 13 weeks each.

(9) The Government wants all children to study a *broad* and balanced range of subjects and in 1989 it began introducing a statutory National *Curriculum* in state schools in England and Wales. The national curriculum is organised into blocks of years called 'key stages' (KS). At the end of each key stage, the teacher will formally assess your child's performance. The National Curriculum *defines* four key stage, and ten *statutory* subjects:

key stage 1 — up to the age 7 (infants)

key stage 2–7 to 11 (juniors)

key stage 3–11 to 14 (pre *GCSE*)

key stage 4–14 to 16 (preparation for GCSE and equivalent *vocational* pathways).

(10) Key stage 1 and 2 are the primary phase and key stage 3 and 4 *constitute* the secondary phase. The three *"core"* subjects are English, mathematics and science and there are seven other "foundation" subjects — technology, history, geography, music, art, physical education (PE) and a modern foreign language. In addition in Wales, Welsh is a core subject in Welsh-speaking schools and a foundation subject in other schools. All children in key stages 1 to 3 must study the first nine of these subjects. In key stage 3 compulsory national curriculum subjects are: English, maths, science, history, geography, modern foreign languages, design and technology, art and design, music, physical education, citizenship, computing. Pupils aged 14 to 16 (key stage 4) study core subjects: English, maths, science. Foundation subjects are: computing, physical education, citizenship. Schools must also offer at least one subject from each of these areas: arts, design and technology, humanities, modern foreign languages.

(11) *Attainment targets* are set for each National Curriculum subject. In English, for instance, there are five basic targets: speaking and listening; reading; writing; spelling; and hand-writing. For each attainment target, there are ten levels of attainment. Towards the end of each of the first three key stages, children are assessed against attainment targets with a combination of teacher *assessment* and nationally designed tests.

(12) At the end of key stage 4, GCSEs (the General Certificate of Secondary Education) are the principal means of the National Curriculum assessment in England, Wales and Northern Ireland. The General Certificate of Education

(GCE) *advanced* (A) level is normally taken after two years of study. All grammar and most comprehensive schools have a sixth form, where pupils study for their "A" level. Any student who wants to go to university needs to pass at least two or three "A" levels.

(13) Britain has 131 (in 2019) universities, including the Open University, and 70 other higher educational institutions. Oxford and Cambridge Universities date from 12th and 13th centuries, and the Scottish universities of St. Andrew, Glasgow, Aberdeen and Edinburgh from the 15th to 16th centuries. All the other universities were founded in the 19th and 20th centuries.

1. Explain the following expressions:

- comprehensive education _____
- selective education _____
- independent education _____
- compulsory education _____
- national curriculum _____
- core subjects _____
- foundation subjects _____
- a level exams _____

2. Describe the differences between the following pairs:

school	college
primary	secondary
state school	public school
day school	boarding school
comprehensive system	selective system
A-level student	O-level student
core subject	foundation subject

3. Draw a diagram of how you imagine any educational possibilities to a British child up to the age of 18.

4. Look at the following diagram (Image 18) taken from the book "Britain Explored" by Paul Harvey and Rhodri Jones. Compare your diagram with this one and give an oral summary "British School System".

The following text will introduce you to the topic "Higher Education in Britain". Pay attention to the English-English comment in the margins.

TEXT

(1) *Admission* to the universities is by examination and selection. The general proportion of men to women students is somewhat less than three to one; at Oxford it is over four to one, and at Cambrige seven to one. About a half of all full-time university students in Britain live in colleges and halls of *residence*, a third are in privately rented accommodation, and the *remainder* live at home.

admission /ədˈmɪʃ(ə)n/ *n* — the process or fact of entering or being allowed to enter a place or organization
admit /ədˈmɪt/ *v* (usually admit to) [with object] — allow (someone) to enter a place
residence /ˈrɛzɪd(ə)ns/ *n* (of students) — a person's home, especially a large and impressive one; the fact of living in a particular place
reside /rɪˈzʌɪd/ *v* (in/at) — have one's permanent home in a particular place; be situated
remainder /rɪˈmeɪndə/ *n* — a part of something that is left over when other parts have been completed, used, or dealt with

(2) All students are *eligible* for *grants*, which are provided by local education authorities; the amount paid depends on the earnings of the parents, what are in many cases required to make a contribution. If the parents

eligible /ˈɛlɪdʒɪb(ə)l/ *adj* (often eligible for/to do something) — having the right to do or obtain something; satisfying the appropriate conditions

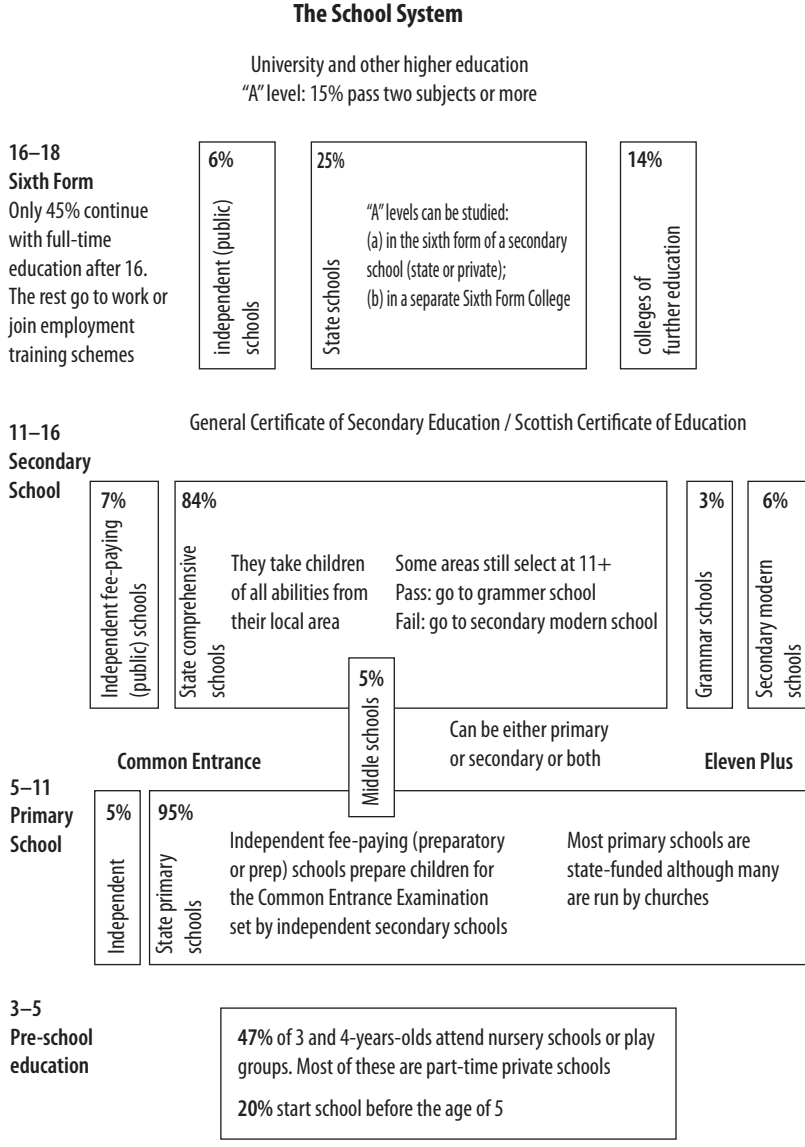


Image 18. British School System

fail to contribute the student very often finds it difficult to cover the expenses for books, accommodation and meals.

(3) At Oxford and Cambridge, considered the elite universities, students are now eligible for a somewhat larger *grant*.

(4) Courses in arts and science are offered by most universities. Imperial College, London, the University of Manchester Institute of Science and Technology and some of the newer universities concentrate on technology, although they also offer a number of courses in social studies, modern languages and other non-technological subjects. About 47 per cent of full-time university students in Britain take arts or social studies courses and 38 per cent science and technology.

(5) University degree courses generally *extend* over three or four years. The first degree of Bachelor of Arts or Science is *awarded* on the *completion* of such a course, depending on satisfactory examination results. (In the arts faculties of the older Scottish universities and Dundee the first degree is called Master of Arts.) Further study or *research* is required at the modern universities for the degree of Master and by all universities for that of Doctor. A uniform standard of degrees throughout the country is ensured by having *external examiners* on all examining boards.

grant /grɑːnt/ *n* — a sum of money given by a government or other organization for a particular purpose
grant /grɑːnt/ *v* — agree to give or allow (something requested) to; give (a right, power, property, etc.) formally or legally to
fail /feɪl/ *v* — be unsuccessful in achieving one's goal; neglect to do something

extend /ɛkˈstɛnd/, /ɪkˈstɛnd/ *v* — cause to cover a wider area; make larger
award /əˈwɔːd/ *v* — give or order the giving of (something) as an official payment, compensation, or prize to (someone)
completion /kəmˈpliːʃn/ *n* — the action or process of completing or finishing something act of completing; the state of being finished
complete /kəmˈpliːt/ *v* — having all the necessary or

appropriate parts; having run its full course; finished

research /rɪˈsəːtʃ/, /ˈriːsəːtʃ/ *n* — the systematic investigation into and study of materials and sources in order to establish facts and reach new conclusions

research /rɪˈsəːtʃ/, /ˈriːsəːtʃ/ *v* — investigate systematically

external /ɪkˈstəːn(ə)l/, /ɛkˈstəːn(ə)l/ *adj* — belonging to or forming the outer surface or structure of something; for or concerning students registered with and taking the examinations of a university but not resident there

external examiner — person (not on the staff of those setting the examination) conducting such an examinating

external examination — one conducted by authorities outside the college, university, etc of the person(s) examined

(6) University teaching combines lectures, practical classes (in scientific subjects) and small-group teaching in either seminars or *tutorials*. Most members of academic staff devote time to *research* and at all universities there are *postgraduate* students *engaged* in *research*.

tutorial /tjuːˈtɔːrɪəl/ *n* — a period of tuition given by a university or college tutor to an individual or very small group

tutor /ˈtjuːtə/ *n* — a private teacher, typically one who teaches a single pupil or a very small group; a university or college

teacher responsible for the teaching and supervision of assigned students
postgraduate /pəʊs(t)ˈgradjʊət/ *adj* — relating to or denoting a course of study undertaken after completing a first degree
engage /ɛnˈgeɪdʒ/, /ɪnˈgeɪdʒ/ *v* (in) — involve someone in (a conversation or discussion)

1. What information about British higher education was unknown for you?

_____

_____

2. Compare your studies with British ones. (Note main aspects you will compare):

_____

_____

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

Educational system in the UK

Across the UK there are five stages of education: early years, primary, secondary, Further Education (FE) and Higher Education (HE). Education is compulsory for all children between the ages of 5 (4 in Northern Ireland) and 16. FE is not compulsory and covers non-advanced education which can be taken at further (including tertiary) education colleges and HE institutions (HEIs). The fifth stage, HE, is study beyond GCE A levels and their equivalent which, for most full-time students, takes place in universities and other HEIs and colleges.

Early Years Education

In England since September 2010, all three and four-year-olds are entitled to 15 hours of free nursery education for 38 weeks of the year. Early Years education takes place in a variety of settings including state nursery schools, nursery classes and reception classes within primary schools, as well as settings outside the state sector such as voluntary pre-schools, privately run nurseries or childminders. In recent years there has been a major expansion of Early Years education and childcare. The Education Act 2002 extended the National Curriculum for England to include the Foundation Stage which was first introduced in September 2000, and covered children's education from the age of 3 to the end of the reception year, when children are aged 5. The Early Years Foundation Stage (EYFS) came into force in September 2008, and is a single regulatory and quality framework for the provision of learning, development and care for children in all registered early years settings between birth and the academic year in which they turn 5. The EYFS Profile (EYFSP) is the statutory assessment of each child's development and learning achievements at the end of the academic year in which they turn 5.

In Wales, children are entitled to a free part-time place the term following a child's third birthday until they enter statutory education. These places can be in a maintained school or a non-maintained setting such as a voluntary playgroup, private nursery or childminder which is approved to provide education. The Foundation Phase is a holistic developmental curriculum for 3 to 7-year-olds based on the needs of the individual child to meet their stage of development. Statutory rollout of the Foundation Phase framework started in September 2008 and the process was completed in the 2011/12 school year.

In Scotland, education typically starts with pre-school. Local authorities have a duty to secure a part-time funded place for every child starting from the beginning of the school term after the child's third birthday. Pre-school education can be provided by local authority centres, or private and voluntary providers under a partnership arrangement. In Scotland, early years education is called ante-pre-school education for those who are start receiving their pre-school education in the academic year after their 3rd birthday until the end of that academic year (note: depending on when the child turned 3 years of age, some children may only receive part

of an academic year's worth of ante-pre-school education (e. g. 1 term), whereas other children may receive an entire academic year of pre-school education). All children are entitled to receive a full academic year's worth of pre-school education in the academic year before they are eligible to, and expected to, start primary school.

The commitment in the Northern Ireland Executive's Programme for Government is to 'ensure that at least one year of pre-school education is available to every family that wants it.' Funded pre-school places are available in statutory nursery schools and units and in those voluntary and private settings participating in the Pre-School Education Expansion Programme. Places in the voluntary/private sector 2 are part-time whilst, in the statutory nursery sector, both full-time and part-time places are available. Pre-school education is designed for children in the year immediately before they enter Primary 1. Taking into account the starting age for compulsory education in Northern Ireland this means children are aged between 3 years 2 months and 4 years 2 months in the September in which they enter their final pre-school year. The Programme incorporates a number of features designed to promote high quality pre-school education provision in all settings including a curriculum which is common to all those involved in pre-school education.

Primary

The primary stage covers three age ranges: nursery (under 5), infant (5 to 7 or 8) (Key Stage 1) and junior (up to 11 or 12) (Key Stage 2) but in Scotland and Northern Ireland there is generally no distinction between infant and junior schools. In Wales, although the types of school are the same, the Foundation Phase has brought together what was previously known as the Early Years (from 3 to 5-year-olds) and Key Stage 1 (from 5 to 7-year-olds) of the National Curriculum to create one phase of education for children aged between three and seven. In England, primary schools generally cater for 4–11 year olds. Some primary schools may have a nursery or a children's centre attached to cater for younger children. Most public sector primary schools take both boys and girls in mixed classes. It is usual to transfer straight to secondary school at age 11 (in England, Wales and Northern Ireland) or 12 (in Scotland), but in England some children make the transition

via middle schools catering for various age ranges between 8 and 14. Depending on their individual age ranges middle schools are classified as either primary or secondary. The major goals of primary education are achieving basic literacy and numeracy amongst all pupils, as well as establishing foundations in science, mathematics and other subjects. Children in England and Northern Ireland are assessed at the end of Key Stage 1 and Key Stage 2. In Wales, all learners in their final year of Foundation Phase and Key Stage 2 must be assessed through teacher assessments.

Secondary

In England, public provision of secondary education in an area may consist of a combination of different types of school, the pattern reflecting historical circumstance and the policy adopted by the local authority. Comprehensive schools largely admit pupils without reference to ability or aptitude and cater for all the children in a neighbourhood, but in some areas they co-exist with other types of schools, for example grammar schools. Academies, operating in England, are publicly funded independent schools. Academies benefit from greater freedoms to help innovate and raise standards. These include freedom from local authority control, the ability to set their own pay and conditions for staff, freedom around the delivery of the curriculum and the ability to change the lengths of terms and school days. The Academies Programme was first introduced in March 2000 with the objective of replacing poorly performing schools. Academies were established and driven by external sponsors, to achieve a transformation in education performance. The Academies Programme was expanded through legislation in the Academies Act 2010. This enables all maintained primary, secondary and special schools to apply to become an Academy. The early focus is on schools rated outstanding by OFSTED and the first of these new academies opened in September 2010. These schools do not have a sponsor but instead are expected to work with underperforming schools to help raise standards.

In Wales, secondary schools take pupils at 11 years old until statutory school age and beyond 3.

Education authority secondary schools in Scotland are comprehensive in character and offer six years of secondary education; however, in remote areas there are several two-year and four-year secondary schools.

In Northern Ireland, post-primary education consists of 5 compulsory years and two further years if students wish to remain in school to pursue post GCSE / Level 2 courses to Level 3. Ministerial policy is that transfer should be on the basis of nonacademic criteria, however legally post primary schools can still admit pupils based on academic performance. At the end of this stage of education, pupils are normally entered for a range of external examinations. Most frequently, these are GCSE (General Certificate of Secondary Education) in England, Wales and Northern Ireland and Standard Grades in Scotland, although a range of other qualifications are available. In Scotland pupils study for the National Qualifications (NQ) Standard grade (a two-year course leading to examinations at the end of the fourth year of secondary schooling) and NQ Higher grade, which requires at least a further year of secondary schooling.

From 1999/00 additional new NQ were introduced in Scotland to allow greater flexibility and choice in the Scottish examination system. NQ include Intermediate 1 & 2 designed primarily for candidates in the fifth and sixth year of secondary schooling, however these are used in some schools as an alternative to Standard Grades.

Further Education

Further education may be used in a general sense to cover all non-advanced courses taken after the period of compulsory education. It is post-compulsory education (in addition to that received at secondary school), that is distinct from the education offered in universities (higher education). It may be at any level from basic skills training to higher vocational education such as City and Guilds or Foundation Degree. A distinction is usually made between FE and higher education (HE). HE is education at a higher level than secondary school. This is usually provided in distinct institutions such as universities. FE in the United Kingdom therefore includes education for people over 16, usually excluding universities. It is primarily taught in FE colleges, work-based learning, and adult and community learning institutions. This includes

post-16 courses similar to those taught at schools and sub-degree courses similar to those taught at higher education (HE) colleges (which also teach degree-level courses) and at some universities. Colleges in England that are regarded as part of the FE sector include General FE (GFE) and tertiary colleges, Sixth form colleges, Specialist colleges (mainly colleges of agriculture and horticulture and colleges of drama and dance) and Adult education institutes.

In addition, FE courses may be offered in the school sector, both in sixth form (16–19) schools, or, more commonly, sixth forms within secondary schools.

In England, further education is often seen as forming one part of a wider learning and skills sector, alongside workplace education, prison education, and other types of non-school, non-university education and training. Since June 2009, the sector is overseen by the new Department for Business, Innovation and Skills, although some parts (such as education and training for 14–19 year olds) fall within the remit of the Department for Education.

Higher Education

Higher education is defined as courses that are of a standard that is higher than GCE A level, the Higher Grade of the SCE/National Qualification, GNVQ/NVQ level 3 or the Edexcel (formerly BTEC) or SQA National Certificate/Diploma. There are three main levels of HE course:

(i) Postgraduate courses leading to higher degrees, diplomas and certificates (including Doctorate, Masters (research and taught), Postgraduate diplomas and certificates as well as postgraduate certificates of education (PGCE) and professional qualifications) which usually require a first degree as entry qualification.

(ii) Undergraduate courses which include first degrees (honours and ordinary), first degrees with qualified teacher status, enhanced first degrees, first degrees obtained concurrently with a diploma, and intercalated first degrees (where first degree students, usually in medicine, dentistry or veterinary medicine, interrupt their studies to complete a one-year course of advanced studies in a related topic).

(iii) Other undergraduate courses which include all other higher education courses, for example SVQ or NVQ: Level 5, Diploma (HNC/D

level for diploma and degree holders), HND (or equivalent), HNC (or equivalent) and SVQ or NVQ: Level 4 and Diplomas in HE.

As a result of the Further and Higher Education Act 1992, former polytechnics and some other HEIs were designated as universities in 1992/93. Students normally attend HE courses at HEIs, but some attend at FE colleges.

From *GOV*. URL: https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/219167/v01–2012ukes.pdf (date of access: 09.07.2019)

Unit 5
ENGLISH LITERATURE

The following text will introduce you to the topic "English Literature". Outline the most important points in the text and the English-English dictionary comments in the margins.

TEXT

(1) English literature is traditionally divided into the Old English, Middle English, *Renaissance* and Elizabethan, *Jacobean*, *Restoration*, the 18th century, Romantic, Victorian, and Modern periods. Literary traditions often *overflow* such categories, however, and *diverse approaches* have always coexisted. Old English and, to lesser extent, Middle English appear to the modern reader to be foreign languages.

Renaissance /rɪˈneɪs(ə)ns/, /rɪˈneɪsɑ: ns/, /rɪˈneɪsɔ̃s/, /rɪ'neɪsns/ *n* — the revival of European art and literature under the influence of classical models in the 14th–16th centuries
Jacobean /ˌdʒakəˈbiːən/ *adj* — relating to the reign of James I of England
Restoration /rɛstəˈreɪʃ(ə)n/ *n* — the return of a monarch to a throne, a head of state to government, or a regime to power; the re-establishment of Charles II as King of England in 1660. After the death of Oliver Cromwell in 1658, his son Richard (1626–1712) proved incapable of maintaining the Protectorate, and General Monck

organized the king's return from exile
overflow /əʊvəˈfləʊ/ *v* — (*pp* ~-*ed*) (especially of a liquid) flow over the brim of a receptacle; (of a container) be so full that the contents go over the sides; (of a space) be so crowded that people spill out
diverse /dʌɪˈvəːs/, /ˈdʌɪvəːs/ *adj* — showing a great deal of variety; very different
approach /əˈprəʊtʃ/ *n* — a way of dealing with someone or something; a way of doing or thinking about something such as a problem or a task; movement nearer
approach /əˈprəʊtʃ/ *v* — come near or nearer to (someone or something) in distance or time; come close to (a number, level, or standard) in quality or quantity

(2) Old English is the first recorded English literature. The *alliterative* verse of *Caedmon* was mentioned in the *Venerable* Bede's *Historia ecclesiastica gentis Anglorum* ("*Ecclesiastical* History of the English People") in the 8th century. Manuscripts from about AD 1000 contain the best known Old English work, *Beowulf*, a heroic poem written in about 700 to 750. Such poems were originally written to be sung, and the subject matter was generally religious or heroic. In prose there

alliteration /əlɪtəˈreɪʃ(ə)n/ *n* — the occurrence of the same letter or sound at the beginning of adjacent or closely connected words
alliterative /əˈlɪt(ə)rətɪv/ *adj* — relating to or marked by alliteration
Caedmon /ˈkadmən/ *n* — (7th century), Anglo-Saxon monk and poet, said to have been an illiterate

were *plain-narrative* historical chronicles such as *The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle.*

herdsman inspired in a vision to compose poetry on biblical themes. The only authentic fragment of his work is a song in praise of the Creation, quoted by Bede

venerable /ˈvɛn(ə)rəb(ə)l/ *adj* — accorded a great deal of respect, especially because of age, wisdom, or character

ecclesiastic /ɪˌkliːzɪˈastɪk/ *n* — a priest or minister in the Christian Church

ecclesiastical /ɪˌklizɪˈæstɪkl/ *adj* — connected with the Christian Church

Beowulf /ˈbeɪəwʊlf/ *n* — an Old English epic poem celebrating the legendary Scandinavian hero Beowulf

plain /pleɪn/ *adj* (*-er*, *-est*) — not decorated or elaborate; simple or basic in character; easy to perceive or understand; clear

narrative /ˈnarətɪv/ *n* — a spoken or written account of connected events*;*

narrative /ˈnarətɪv/ *adj* — in the form of or concerned with…

(3) Middle English begins with the Norman *Conquest* of 1066. This brought both the French language, which in time combined with the Germanic Anglo-Saxon to form the basis of modern English, and a French literary influence. The Arthurian cycle became the central myth

conquest /ˈkɒŋkwɛst/ *n* — the subjugation and assumption of control of a place or people by military force; (the Conquest) the invasion and assumption of control of England

for English literature, as seen in works such as *Sir Gawayne and the Grene Knight,* an example of the alliterative revival of the 14th century, and Sir Thomas Malory's *Morte Darthur.* Geoffrey *Chaucer*, master of the complex *narrative* and sometimes presented as the first modern English writer, occupies the central position in Middle English literature. He combined the classical epic and European philosophical influence in his *Troilus and Criscyde* but also gave the *vernacular* a solid basis in his comic *Canterbury Tales.*

(4) The European Renaissance had filtered into England by the 16th century and led to the *questioning* of the religious beliefs

by William of Normandy in 1066

the Grene Knight /gri:n nʌɪt/ — the Green Knight.

Morte Darthur — Death of Arthur.

G. Chaucer /ˈtʃɔ:sə/ — (c. 1342–1400), English poet. His most famous work, the *Canterbury Tales* (c. 1387–1400), is a cycle of linked tales told by a group of pilgrims. His skills of characterization, humour, and versatility established him as the first great English poet. Other notable works: *Troilus and Criseyde* (1385)

Troilus and Criseyde /ˈtrɔɪləs ənd'krɛsɪdə/ — a Trojan prince, the son of Priam and Hecuba, killed by Achilles. In medieval legends of the Trojan war he is portrayed as the forsaken lover of Cressida, the daughter of Calchas, a priest

vernacular /vəˈnakjʊlə/ *adj* — (usually *the vernacular*) the language or dialect spoken by the ordinary people in a particular country or region

Canterbury Tales /ˈkantəb(ə)ri ˈteɪli:z/

questioning /ˈkwɛstʃ(ə)nɪŋ/ *n* — the action of asking someone

and *assumptions* of the Middle Ages. Literature began to look back beyond the medieval period to the classics for inspiration, and *Neo*platonism, through Edmund Spenser and lyrical courtly poetry, became the dominant philosophical theme. Humanism *emerged* in Sir Philip Sidney's *Defence of Poesie* (the beginnings of English literary criticism), in Francis Bacon's prose essays, and particularly in the plays of William Shakespeare. As the central figure of the English Renaissance, Shakespeare expresses both its conflicts and its *glorious* energy and provides the basis for its reputation as the golden age of English literature and of English drama in particular.

questions, especially in an official; the raising of a doubt about or objection to something
assumption /əˈsʌm(p)ʃ(ə)n/ *n* — a thing that is accepted as true or as certain to happen, without proof
neo /ˈniːəʊ/ *pref.* — new; new or revived form of
emerge /ɪˈməːdʒ/ *v* — move out of or away from something and become visible
glorious /ˈglɔːrɪəs/ *adj* — having, worthy of, or bringing fame or admiration; having a striking beauty or splendour

(5) The political *strife* accompanying the *accession* of James I in 1603 produced a *strain* of cynicism. There emerged at this time the intellectual passion of metaphysical poetry — with John Donne at its centre — containing the conflicts between love, religion, and the individual. Out of this grew a period of *Puritanism*, leading to the closure of all English theatres in 1642 and to Oliver Cromwell's Puritan regime. The dominant literary figure was John Milton, and his influential religious epic *Paradise Lost* (1667) provided a link between the Puritan era and the restoration of the monarchy.

strife /strʌɪf/ *n* — angry or bitter disagreement over fundamental issues; conflict
accession /əkˈsɛʃ(ə)n/ *n* — the attainment or acquisition of a position of rank or power
strain /streɪn/ *n* — condition of being stretched; force exerted
Puritanism /ˈpjʊərɪtənɪz(ə)m/ *n* — the beliefs or principles of a group of English Protestants of the late 16th and 17th centuries who regarded the Reformation of the Church under Elizabeth I as incomplete and sought to simplify and

regulate forms of worship; censorious moral beliefs, especially about self-indulgence and sex

Paradise /ˈparədʌɪs/ *n* — the abode of Adam and Eve before the Fall in the biblical account of the Creation; the Garden of Eden

(6) The return of Charles II in 1660 brought the *courtly* Restoration period, characterized by the social drama of William *Congreve* and the satirical poetry of Andrew Marvell and John *Dryden*. The diary and biography forms emerged as useful genres in the works of Samuel Pepys and Izaak Walton particularly, and these forms reappeared in the beginnings of the novel during the 18th century.

courtly /ˈkɔːtli/ *adj* (*-ier*, *-iest*) — very polite or refined, as befitting a royal court

W. Congreve /ˈkɒŋgriːv/ — (1670–1729), English playwright. A close associate of Swift, Pope, and Steele, he wrote plays such as *Love for Love* (1695) and *The Way of the World* (1700), which epitomize the wit and satire of Restoration comedy

J. Dryden /ˈdrʌɪd(ə)n/ — (1631–1700), English poet, critic, and playwright of the Augustan Age. He is best known for *Marriage à la mode* (comedy, 1673), *All for Love* (a tragedy based on Shakespeare's *Antony and Cleopatra*, 1678), and *Absalom and Achitophel* (verse satire in heroic couplets, 1681)

(7) The 18th century contains two major literary *currents*. The first current was the Augustan Age, or Neoclassical period, marked

current /ˈkʌrənt/ *n* — the general tendency or course of events or opinion

by the appearance of a literary *elite* and *exemplified* by the *mock*-heroic satires of Alexander Pope, the pamphleteering and *allegory* of Jonathan Swift (perhaps the greatest satirist in the language), and the criticism of Samuel Johnson. Journalism and the prose essay *flourished*, both influencing and being *nurtured* by this movement, as seen in Joseph Addison's periodical *The Spectator.* Of great importance is the rise of the novel as an independent literary form in the works of Daniel *Defoe*, Henry Fielding, and Samuel Richardson.

elite /ɪˈliːt/, /eɪˈliːt/ *n* — a select group that is superior in terms of ability or qualities to the rest of a group or society

exemplify /ɛgˈzɛmplɪfʌɪ/, /ɪgˈzɛmplɪfʌɪ/ *v* — be a typical example of; illustrate or clarify by giving an example

mock /mɒk/ *adj* — not authentic or real, but without the intention to deceive

allegory /ˈalɪg(ə)ri/ *n* — a story, poem, or picture that can be interpreted to reveal a hidden meaning, typically a moral or political one

flourish /ˈflʌrɪʃ/ *v* — (of a living organism) grow or develop in a healthy or vigorous way, especially as the result of a particularly congenial environment; develop rapidly and successfully

nurture /ˈnəːtʃə/ *v* — care for and protect (someone or something) while they are growing

D. Defoe /dɪˈfəʊ/ — (1660–1731), English novelist and journalist. His best-known novel, *Robinson Crusoe* (1719), is loosely based on the true story of the shipwrecked sailor Alexander Selkirk; it has a claim to being the first English novel. Other notable

works: *Moll Flanders* (novel, 1722) and *A Journal of the Plague Year* (historical fiction, 1722)

(8) The second current in 18th-century literature was Romanticism, which was in pan a reaction against the elitism and *self-imposed* classical limitations of the Augustans. It began with William Blake's poetry of *rebellion* against convention and with the creation of a new mythology of the imagination. William *Wordsworth* and Samuel Taylor *Coleridge* were central to the movement, producing a *manifesto* of Romantic beliefs in the *preface* to their *joint Lyrical Ballads* (1798). These poets concentrated on the universal power of nature and the imagination and turned away from the grayness of increasing industrialization. The Romantic movement includes widely *disparate* elements, however, from the lyrical sensuality of John Keats to the complex literary criticism in Coleridge's *Biographia Literaria.*

self-imposed /ˌsɛlfɪmˈpəʊzd/ *adj* — a self-imposed task, duty, etc. is one that you force yourself to do rather than one that someone else forces you to do
impose /ɪmˈpəʊz/ *v* — force (an unwelcome decision or ruling) on someone force (smth, oneself, one's company)
rebellion /rɪˈbɛljən/ *n* — an act of armed resistance to an established government or leader
rebel /rɪˈbɛl/ *v* — rise in opposition or armed resistance to an established government or leader; resist authority, control, or convention
W. Wordsworth /ˈwəːdzwəθ/ — (1770–1850), English poet. Much of his work was inspired by the Lake District. His *Lyrical Ballads* (1798), which was composed with Coleridge and included *Tintern Abbey*, was a landmark in romanticism. Other notable poems: *I Wandered Lonely as a Cloud* (sonnet, 1815) and *The Prelude* (1850). He was appointed Poet Laureate in 1843

S. T. Coleridge /ˈkəʊlərɪdʒ/ — (1772–1834), English poet, critic, and philosopher. His *Lyrical Ballads* (1798), written with William Wordsworth, marked the start of English romanticism and included *The Rime of the Ancient Mariner*. Other notable poems: *Christabel* and *Kubla Khan* (both 1816)
manifesto /manɪˈfɛstəʊ/ *n* — a public declaration of policy and aims, especially one issued before an election by a political party or candidate
preface /ˈprɛfəs/ *n* — an introduction to a book, typically stating its subject, scope, or aims
joint /dʒɔɪnt/ *adj* — (attrib. only) shared, held, or made by two or more people together
disparate /ˈdɪsp(ə)rət/ *adj* — essentially different in kind; not able to be compared

(9) The novel, too, continued to gather strength in the *baroque* fantasies of the *Gothic novel* and in the *insight* into *polite* society shown by Jane *Austen*. The basic form of the historical novel was established by Sir Walter Scott in the 1820s. Scott was *succeeded* by Charles Dickens, *arguably* the most popular English novelist of the Victorian Age, with his masterly *caricature* and scenes of *low* life. Following Dickens were Elizabeth

baroque /bəˈrɒk/, /bəˈrəʊk/ *n, adj* — relating to or denoting a style of European architecture, music, and art of the 17th and 18th centuries that followed Mannerism and is characterized by ornate detail. In architecture the period is exemplified by the palace of Versailles

Gaskell's novels of working-class life, George *Eliot*'s portrayals of 19th-century society and its moral dilemmas, William *Thackeray*'s varied *productions*, and Anthony *Trollope*'s *depictions* of contemporary manners. Thomas Hardy marks the end of the Victorian era and the *threshold* of modernism, through his agnosticism and use of irony.

and by the work of Wren in England. Major composers include Vivaldi, Bach, and Handel; Caravaggio and Rubens are important baroque artists

Gothic novel /gɒθɪkˈnɒvl/ — an English genre of fiction popular in the 18th to early 19th centuries, characterized by an atmosphere of mystery and horror and having a pseudo-medieval setting

insight /ˈɪnsʌɪt/ *n* — the capacity to gain an accurate and deep understanding of someone or something; an accurate and deep understanding

polite /pəˈlʌɪt/ *adj* — having or showing behaviour that is respectful and considerate of other people

J. Austen /ˈɒstɪn/, /ˈɔːstɪn/ — (1775–1817), English novelist. Her major novels are *Sense and Sensibility* (1811), *Pride and Prejudice* (1813), *Mansfield Park* (1814), *Emma* (1815), *Northanger Abbey* (1818), and *Persuasion* (1818). They are notable for skilful characterization, dry wit, and penetrating social observation

succeed /səkˈsiːd/ *v* — achieve the desired aim or result; attain fame, wealth, or social status; come after and take the place of

arguably /ˈɑːgjʊəbli/ *adv* — it may be argued (used to qualify the statement of an opinion or belief)
caricature /ˈkarɪkətjʊə/, /ˈkarɪkətʃɔː/ *n* — a picture, description, or imitation of a person in which certain striking characteristics are exaggerated in order to create a comic or grotesque effect
low /ləʊ/ *adj* (*-er*, *-est*) — of less than average height from top to bottom or to the top from the ground; ranking below other people or things in importance or class
E. Gaskell /ˈgaskəl/ — (1810–65), English novelist; full name Mrs. Elizabeth Cleghorn Gaskell. An active humanitarian from a Unitarian background, she wrote *Mary Barton* (1848), *Cranford* (1853), and *North and South* (1855), which display her interest in social concerns. She also wrote a biography (1857) of her friend Charlotte Brontë
G. Eliot /ˈelēət/ — (1819–80), English novelist; pseudonym of Mary Ann Evans. Her novels of provincial life are characterized by their exploration of moral problems and their development of the psycholog-

ical analysis that marks the modern novel. Notable works: *Adam Bede* (1859), *The Mill on the Floss* (1860), and *Middlemarch* (1871–72)

W. Thackeray /ˈθakəˌri/ — (1811–63), British novelist, born in India. He established his reputation with *Vanity Fair* (1847–48), a satire of the upper middle class of early 19th-century society. Other novels included *The History of Henry Esmond* (1852)

production /prəˈdʌkʃ(ə)n/ *n* — the action of making or manufacturing from components or raw materials, or the process of being so manufactured; a film, record, play, etc., viewed in terms of its making or staging

A. Trollope /ˈtrɒləp/ — (1815–82), English novelist. He is best known for the six 'Barsetshire' novels, including *Barchester Towers* (1857), and for the six political *Palliser* novels. He also worked for the General Post Office 1834–67 and introduced the pillar box to Britain

depiction /dɪˈpɪkʃn/ *n* — the way that something is represented or shown

depict /dɪˈpɪkt/ *v* — represent by a drawing, painting, or other art form; portray in words; describe

threshold /ˈθrɛʃˌhəʊld/, /ˈθrɛʃəʊld/ *n* — a point of entry or beginning

(10) The Modern Age began with World War I, which created a sense of disillusion manifested in the cynicism of the war poets Siegfried Sassoon and Wilfred Owen, as contrasted with the romantic *fervour* of Rupert Brooke. This disillusion became a sense of life's *bleakness* and lack of *promise*, as seen in the Modernist poetry of T. S. Eliot. There was an increasing concentration on form and language, as in the novels of James Joyce and those of Virginia Woolf and the Bloomsbury Group, and this continued into the second half of the 20th century with the poetry of W. H. Auden. *Peripheral* to the Modernist movement are D. H. Lawrence, whose novels examined the inner life of sexuality and the emotions, and the Irish poet *W. B. Yeats*, whose work moved from Symbolism to Modernism and who was a leading figure in the Irish literary Renaissance.

fervour /ˈfəːvə/ *n* — intense and passionate feeling
bleakness /ˈbliːknəs/ *n* — the quality or state of being bare and inhospitable, of cold and miserable weather
promise /ˈprɒmɪs/ *n* — a declaration or assurance that one will do something or that a particular thing will happen
peripheral /pəˈrɪf(ə)r(ə)l/ *adj* — relating to or situated on the edge or periphery of something; of secondary or minor importance; marginal
W. B. Yeats /jeɪts/ — (1865–1939), Irish poet and playwright. His play *The Countess Cathleen* (1892) and his collection of stories *The Celtic Twilight* (1893) stimulated Ireland's theatrical, cultural, and literary revival. Notable poetry: *The Tower* (1928) and *The Winding Stair* (1929). Nobel Prize for Literature (1923)

(11) The second half of the 20th century has been characterized by no particular movement, although there has been significant development in drama, from Realism in John Osborne to Absurdism in Samuel

consciousness /ˈkɒnʃəsnɪs/ *n* — the state of being aware of and responsive to one's surroundings; a person's awareness or perception of something

Beckett. Since the revolutionary movement of the novel in the stream-*consciousness* technique of Joyce and Woolf, there has been no outstanding development in the *genre* as an art form, although it has found solid expression in the works of such writers as G. Greene, *E. Waugh*, W. Golding, and I. Murdoch.

genre /ˈ(d)ʒɒnrə/, /ˈʒɒ̃rə/ *n* — a style or category of art, music, or literature
E. Waugh /wɔ:/ — (1903–66), English writer regarded by many as the most brilliant satirical novelist of his day

1. Explain the following words:

- Renaissance
- Elizabethan
- Restoration
- Romantic
- Victorian
- novel, novelist
- romance, romancer, romanticist
- play, play-book, player, playwright

2. Fill in this chart with information from the text "English Literature". Find some more information about every writer. Give an oral summary "English Literature, Its Periods".

E. g.

Period	**Writer**		**Works**	
Middle English	Geoffrey Chaucer (1340?–1400)	Джефри Чосер	*Canterbury Tales* (1478?) *Troilus and Criseyde* 1385)	«Кентерберийские рассказы» «Троил и Хризеида»

Period	**Writer**		**Works**	
Old English				
Middle English				

Period	Writer		Works	
Renais-sance				
Elizabe-than				
Jacobean				
Restora-tion				
18th century				
Romantic				
Victorian				
Modern				

3. *The text will help you to compose your own. Use as many facts as you know about any British writer.*

Charles Dickens (1812–1870)

Charles Dickens is much loved for his great contribution to classic English literature. He was the quintessential Victorian author. His

Dickens /'dıkınz/

epic stories, vivid characters and exhaustive depiction of contemporary life are unforgettable.

His own story is one of rags to riches. He was born in Portsmouth on 7 February 1812, to John and Elizabeth Dickens. The good fortune of being sent to school at the age of nine was short-lived because his father, inspiration for the character of Mr Micawber in *David Copperfield*, was imprisoned for bad debt. The entire family, apart from Charles, were sent to Marshalsea along with their patriarch. Charles was sent to work in Warren's blacking factory and endured appalling conditions as well as loneliness and despair. After three years he was returned to school, but the experience was never forgotten and became fictionalised in two of his better-known novels *David Copperfield* and *Great Expectations*.

Like many others, he began his literary career as a journalist. His own father became a reporter and Charles began with the journals *The Mirror of Parliament* and *The True Sun*. Then in 1833 he became parliamentary journalist for *The Morning Chronicle*. With new contacts in the press he was able to publish a series of sketches under the pseudonym 'Boz'. In April 1836, he married Catherine Hogarth, daughter of George Hogarth who edited *Sketches by Boz*. Within the same month came the publication of the highly successful *Pickwick Papers*, and from that point on there was no looking back for Dickens.

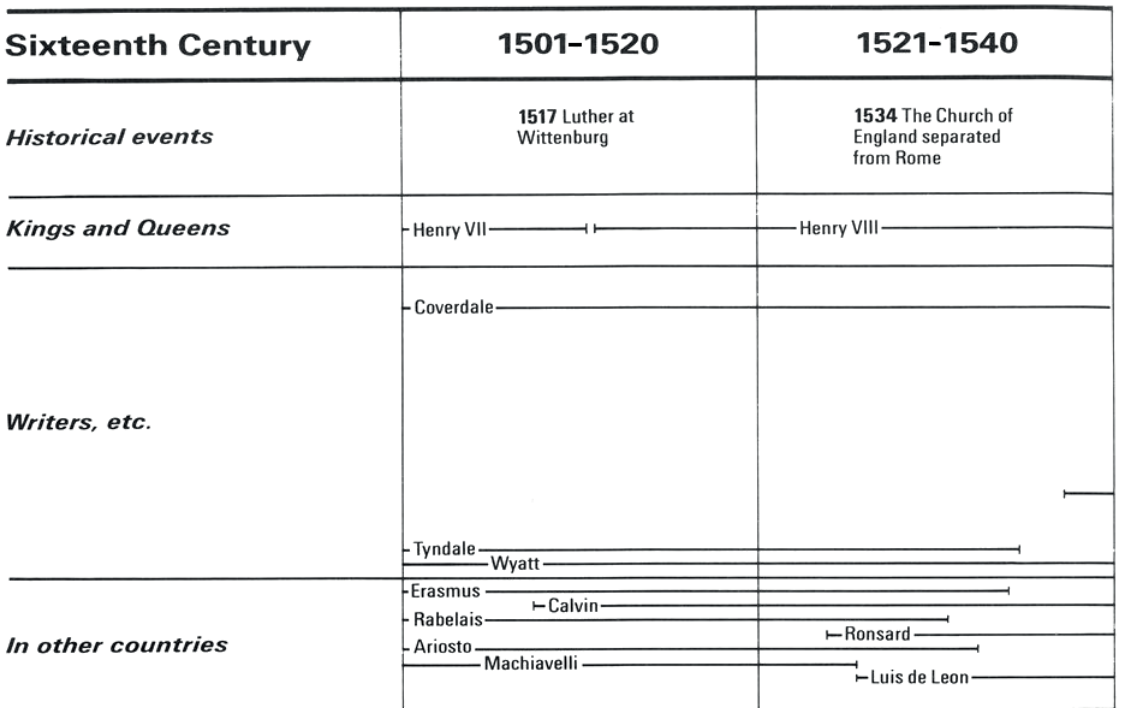
As well as a huge list of novels he published autobiography, edited weekly periodicals including *Household Words* and *All Year*

Round, wrote travel books and administered charitable organisations. He was also a theatre enthusiast, wrote plays and performed before Queen Victoria in 1851. His energy was inexhaustible and he spent much time abroad — for example lecturing against slavery in the United States and touring Italy with companions Augustus Egg and Wilkie Collins, a contemporary writer who inspired Dickens' final unfinished novel *The Mystery of Edwin Drood*.

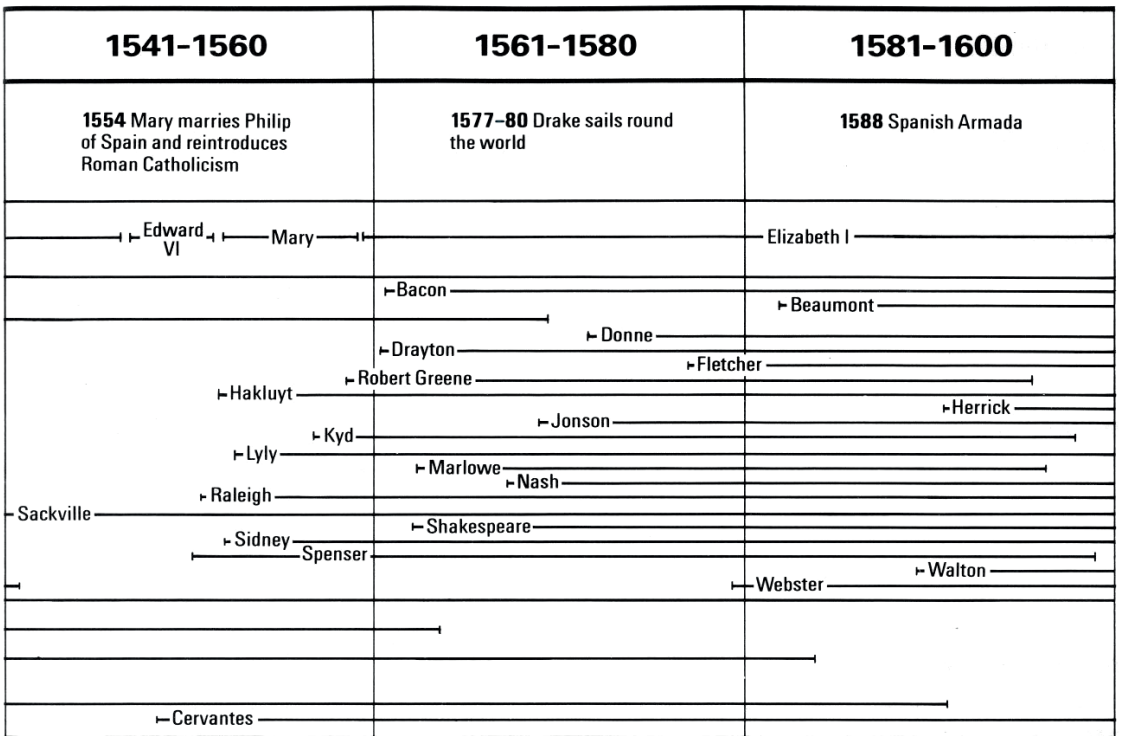
He was estranged from his wife in 1858 after the birth of their ten children, but maintained relations with his mistress, the actress Ellen Ternan. He died of a stroke in 1870. He is buried at Westminster Abbey.

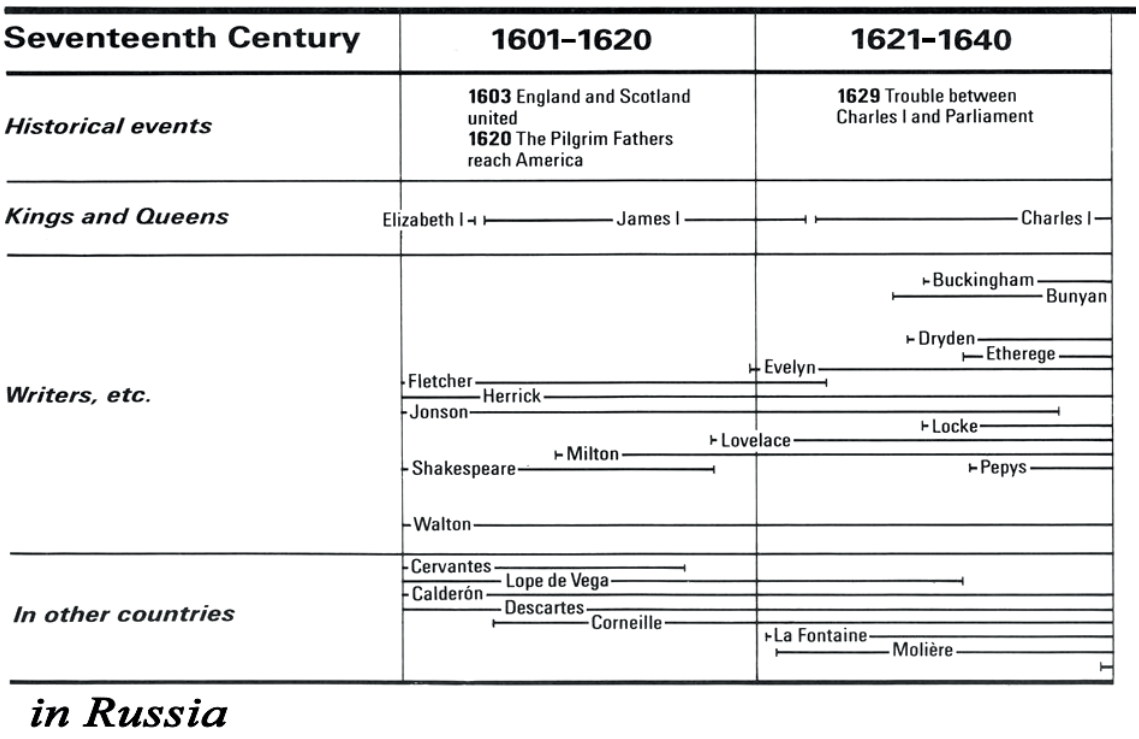
From *BBC.* URL: https://www.bbc.co.uk/history/historic_figures/dickens_charles.shtml (date of access: 09.07.2019)

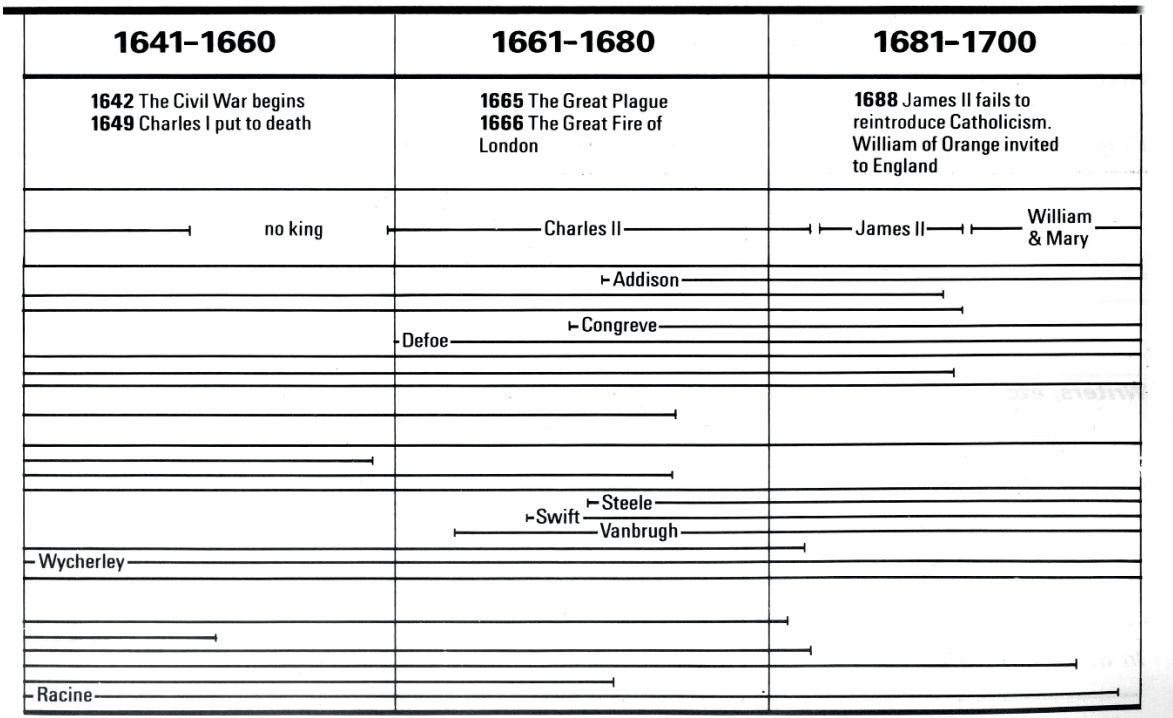
4. Look at the following table taken from the book "An Outline of English Literature" by G. C. Thornley and Gwyneth Roberts. Compare the information taken from the text "English Literature" with the table information. Will you demonstrate your knowledge about Russian history and literature using the table.

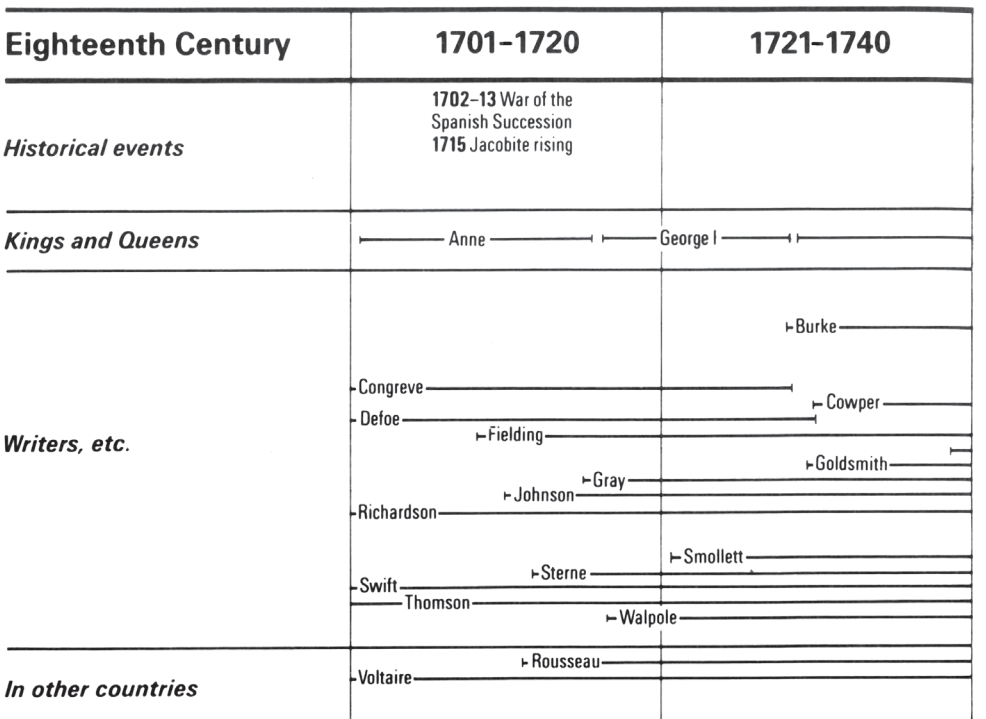

Sixteenth Century
1501–1520
1521–1540
Historical events
1517 Luther at Wittenburg
1534 The Church of England separated from Rome
Kings and Queens
Henry VII
Henry VIII
Writers, etc.
Coverdale
Tyndale
Wyatt
In other countries
Erasmus
Calvin
Rabelais
Ronsard
Ariosto
Machiavelli
Luis de Leon

in Russia

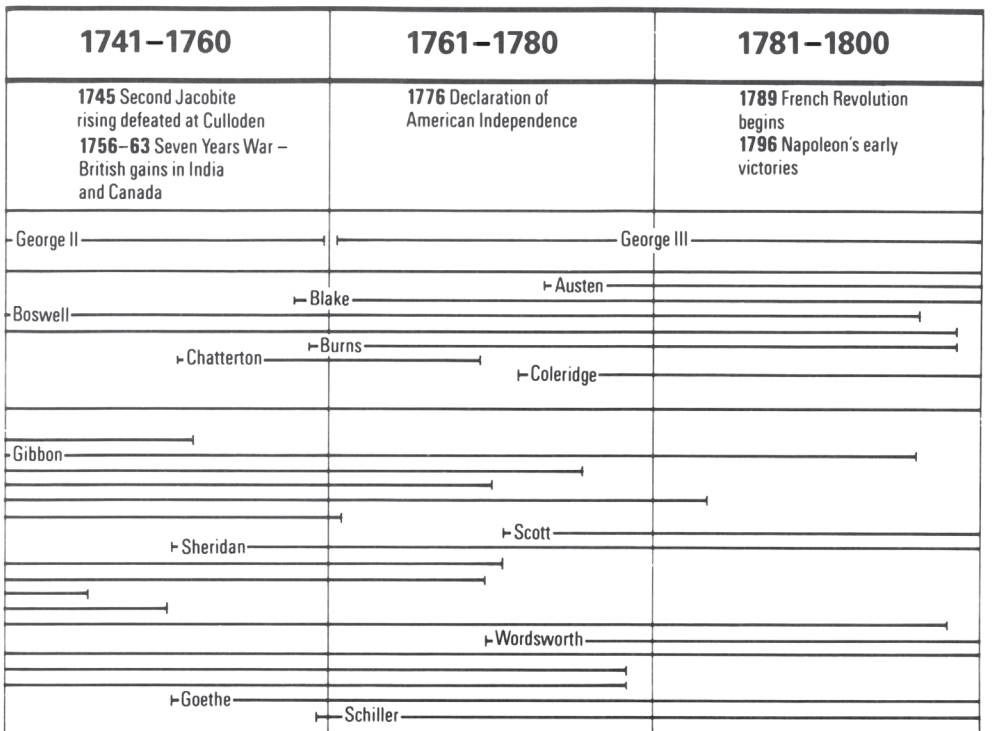

1541–1560
1561–1580
1581–1600
1554 Mary marries Philip of Spain and reintroduces Roman Catholicism
1577–80 Drake sails round the world
1588 Spanish Armada
Edward VI
Mary
Elizabeth I
Bacon
Beaumont
Donne
Drayton
Fletcher
Robert Greene
Hakluyt
Herrick
Jonson
Kyd
Lyly
Marlowe
Nash
Raleigh
Sackville
Shakespeare
Sidney
Spenser
Walton
Webster
Cervantes

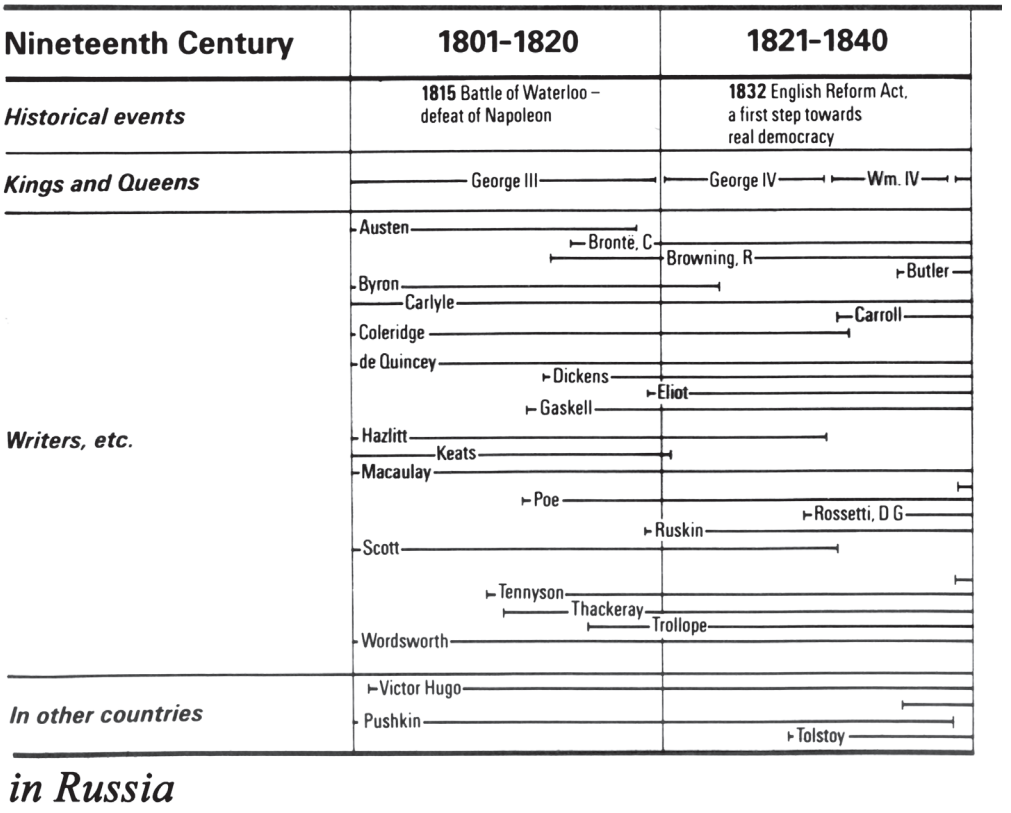

Seventeenth Century
1601–1620
1621–1640
Historical events
1603 England and Scotland united
1620 The Pilgrim Fathers reach America
1629 Trouble between Charles I and Parliament
Kings and Queens
Elizabeth I
James I
Charles I
Writers, etc.
Buckingham
Bunyan
Dryden
Etherege
Evelyn
Fletcher
Herrick
Jonson
Locke
Lovelace
Milton
Shakespeare
Pepys
Walton
In other countries
Cervantes
Lope de Vega
Calderón
Descartes
Corneille
La Fontaine
Molière
in Russia


1641–1660
1661–1680
1681–1700
1642 The Civil War begins
1649 Charles I put to death
1665 The Great Plague
1666 The Great Fire of London
1688 James II fails to reintroduce Catholicism. William of Orange invited to England
no king
Charles II
James II
William & Mary
Addison
Congreve
Defoe
Steele
Swift
Vanbrugh
Wycherley
Racine


Eighteenth Century
1701–1720
1721–1740
Historical events
1702–13 War of the Spanish Succession
1715 Jacobite rising
Kings and Queens
Anne
George I
Writers, etc.
Burke
Congreve
Cowper
Defoe
Fielding
Goldsmith
Gray
Johnson
Richardson
Smollett
Sterne
Swift
Thomson
Walpole
In other countries
Rousseau
Voltaire

in Russia


1741–1760
1761–1780
1781–1800
1745 Second Jacobite rising defeated at Culloden
1756–63 Seven Years War – British gains in India and Canada
1776 Declaration of American Independence
1789 French Revolution begins
1796 Napoleon's early victories
George II
George III
Austen
Blake
Boswell
Burns
Chatterton
Coleridge
Gibbon
Scott
Sheridan
Wordsworth
Goethe
Schiller


Nineteenth Century
1801–1820
1821–1840
Historical events
1815 Battle of Waterloo – defeat of Napoleon
1832 English Reform Act, a first step towards real democracy
Kings and Queens
George III
George IV
Wm. IV
Writers, etc.
Austen
Brontë, C
Browning, R
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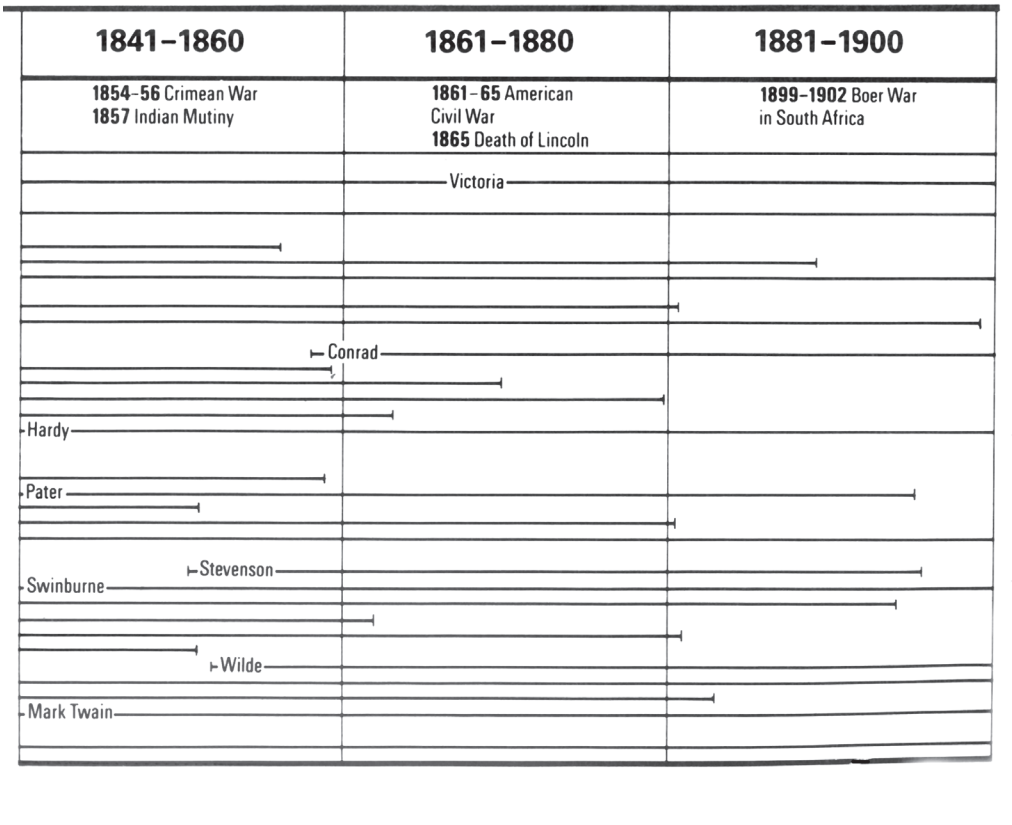
Tennyson
Thackeray
Trollope
Wordsworth
In other countries
Victor Hugo
Pushkin
Tolstoy

in Russia


1841–1860
1861–1880
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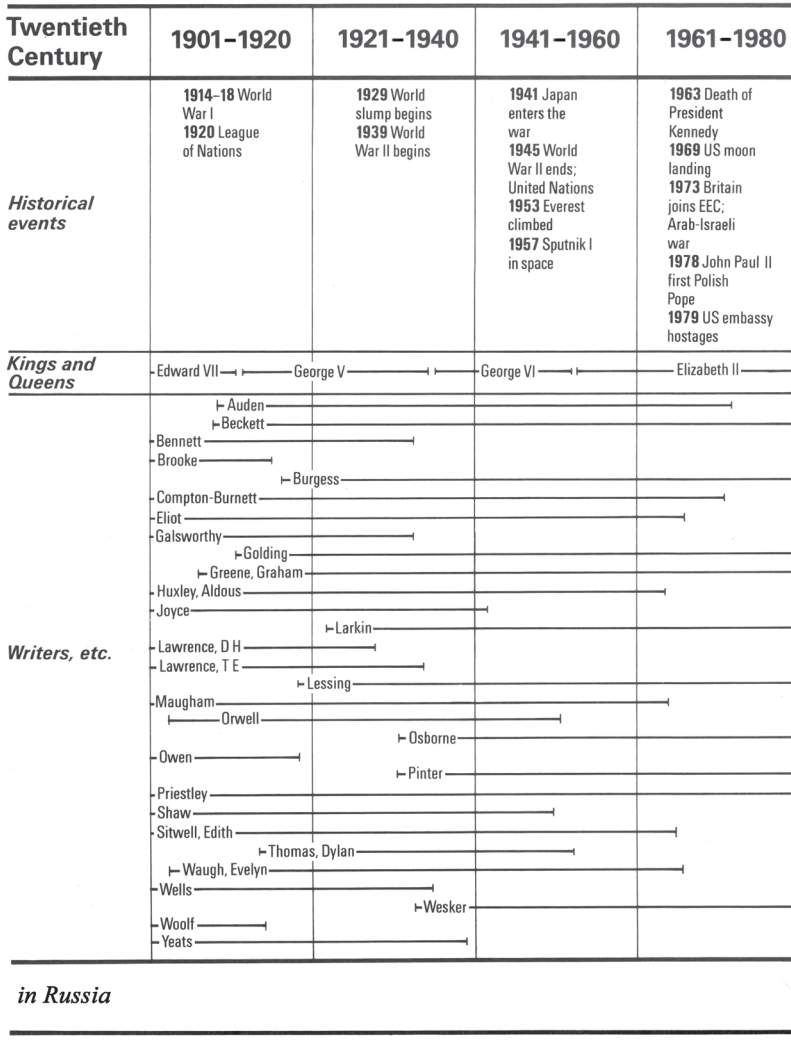
1854–56 Crimean War
1857 Indian Mutiny
1861–65 American Civil War
1865 Death of Lincoln
1899–1902 Boer War in South Africa
Victoria
Conrad
Hardy
Pater
Stevenson
Swinburne
Wilde
Mark Twain


Twentieth Century
1901–1920
1921–1940
1941–1960
1961–1980
Historical events
1914–18 World War I
1920 League of Nations
1929 World slump begins
1939 World War II begins
1941 Japan enters the war
1945 World War II ends; United Nations
1953 Everest climbed
1957 Sputnik I in space
1963 Death of President Kennedy
1969 US moon landing
1973 Britain joins EEC; Arab-Israeli war
1978 John Paul II first Polish Pope
1979 US embassy hostages
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ЗУБАКИНА ТАТЬЯНА НИКОЛАЕВНА

Кандидат филологических наук, доцент кафедры лингвистики и профессиональной коммуникации на иностранных языках Уральского федерального университета. Работает на гуманитарных специальностях бакалавриата, магистратуры и аспирантуры. Последний раз проходила стажировку в Великобритании в Кембриджском университете в 2016 году. Сфера научных интересов — когнитивная и политическая лингвистика.